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First Annual Human Resources Review. May  
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ALBERTA. HUMAN RESOURCES RESEARCH COUNCIL.

The first annual human resources review.





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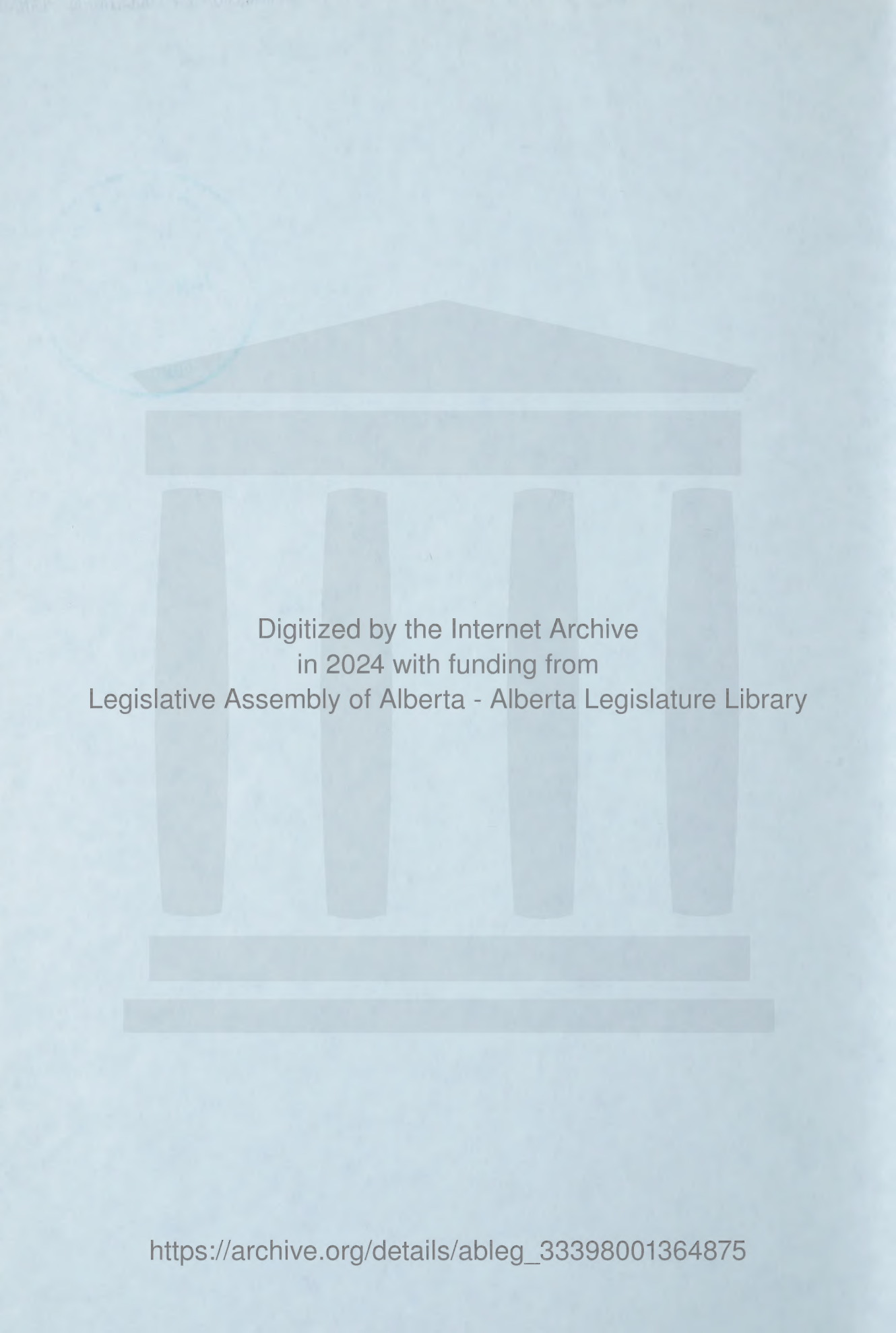


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# THE FIRST ANNUAL HUMAN RESOURCES REVIEW

Alberta Human Resources Research Council  
Edmonton  
May 31, 1971



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## INTRODUCTION

This report is addressed to the people of Alberta.

The First Annual Human Resources Review is the first product of what is intended to be a long-term, ongoing research project which aims at simultaneously identifying and analyzing (a) the needs of the citizens of Alberta, (b) the social and political goals which Albertans have set for themselves, and (c) the social services which have been established to meet these needs and accomplish these goals.

But the purposes of this first report are much more modest than this. We are concerned with (1) developing a model for a social report, (2) identifying and bringing together the best available data (no new data was collected especially for this report) and (3) assessing the feasibility of social reporting in Alberta.

This project has its origins in the White Paper on Human Resources Development presented by the Government of Alberta to the people of the province in 1967, and in the mandate of the Human Resources Research Council:

*. . . The objects of the Council are to undertake educational, social, economic and other research relating to and affecting the development and conservation of human resources in Alberta and, in particular . . .*

*(a) . . . to gather, analyze, coordinate and distribute available knowledge . . .*

*(b) to develop, revise and assess plans, materials and procedures relating to or affecting educational, social, economic and other aspects of human resources development, and to disseminate the results . . .*

*. . .*

The underlying assumption of the project is that the province and its people have reached the point where accumulated knowledge and increased human capacity can yield comprehensive understandings of the present, certain images of the future, and the formulation of sound programs to work from the present to the future.

Clearly, the present volume does not constitute a social report. It is only a beginning, a tentative first step toward a better understanding of Alberta and its people.

But it is a beginning.

OVERVIEW: SOCIAL  
RESEARCH AND MAKING  
SOCIAL POLICY



Formulating social policy requires understanding . . . the province, its people, its institutions, its services, its environment, its resources and its capacity for growth and development, and the interactions and interdependencies among them.







Until recently, policy making was viewed largely as an art: the practice of wise and successful politicians. The tools of the trade were intuition, experience and judgements about the public will.

But as the needs of individuals, the goals of society and the delivery of social services have all grown more complex, the policy making tools which were once successful have become increasingly inadequate. The impacts of various policies and programs on the quality of life of citizens have become extremely difficult to assess.

One answer to these difficulties has been to add an "intelligence", an information system, a research component to policy making machinery. Policy makers now insist more often that issues be researched before decisions are made.

The Human Resources Review is concerned with one form of policy-informing research. It focuses on establishing a baseline on the quality of life of the people of Alberta -- a baseline against which future progress might be measured. It is an attempt to set up an account of the conditions of life in Alberta and of the various delivery systems which have contributed to these conditions.

For whom has it been prepared?

Far too often intelligence or information has become a part of the game of oneupmanship that politicians play with each other. Information is seen as power, as a source of political muscle. To win this power struggle, the politician must be better informed, have a better intelligence system, than his opponent.

But, indications are that, in the future, policy deliberations and debates will be increasingly removed from the chambers of government and located in the public arena. The evidence is clear that "the people" want to become more and more involved in governance and policy making -- not just through the traditional mechanism of representation, but directly through the processes of participatory policy making.

As this movement gathers momentum, the intelligence service will be required to shift its target from the politician to the policy maker. For, not only will the people be required to become expert in the evaluation of policy, they will insist that they become involved in its development.

It follows, we believe, that virtually all policy research should be regarded as a part of a public intelligence system. All participants in the policy process -- be they policy formulators (political leaders), policy implementers (civil







servants), or policy evaluators (the people) -- ought to have access to all relevant information.

Thus, this Review has been prepared for all policy makers -- the people of Alberta.

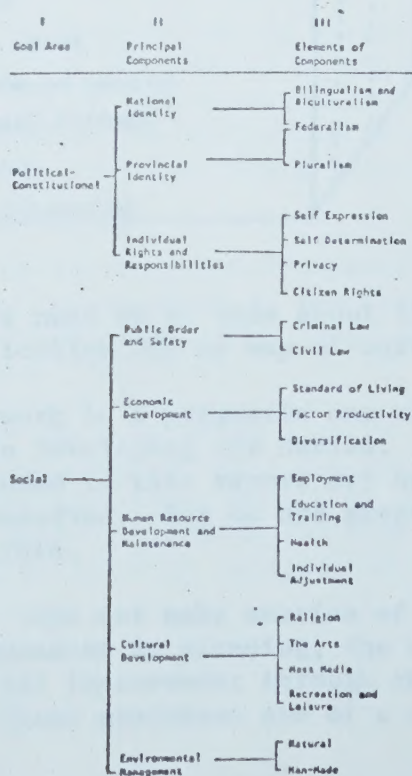
## FRAMEWORK OF THE REVIEW

The Human Resources Review is based on a three-dimensional model which interrelates social goals, the needs or concerns of individuals, and social services in the public and private sectors.

The needs and concerns of individuals are grouped into nine major clusters. The list could have been shorter, at the risk of developing categories very abstract in nature. It could also have been much longer, at the risk of making the scheme unmanageable. The nine clusters are:

- self-determination
- legal justice
- earning a living
- learning and education
- well being
- religious experience
- pleasure
- environmental adjustment
- family

Social goals are placed in two main categories, political-constitutional and social. Each of these categories has several principal components and the components in turn are comprised of a number of elements.





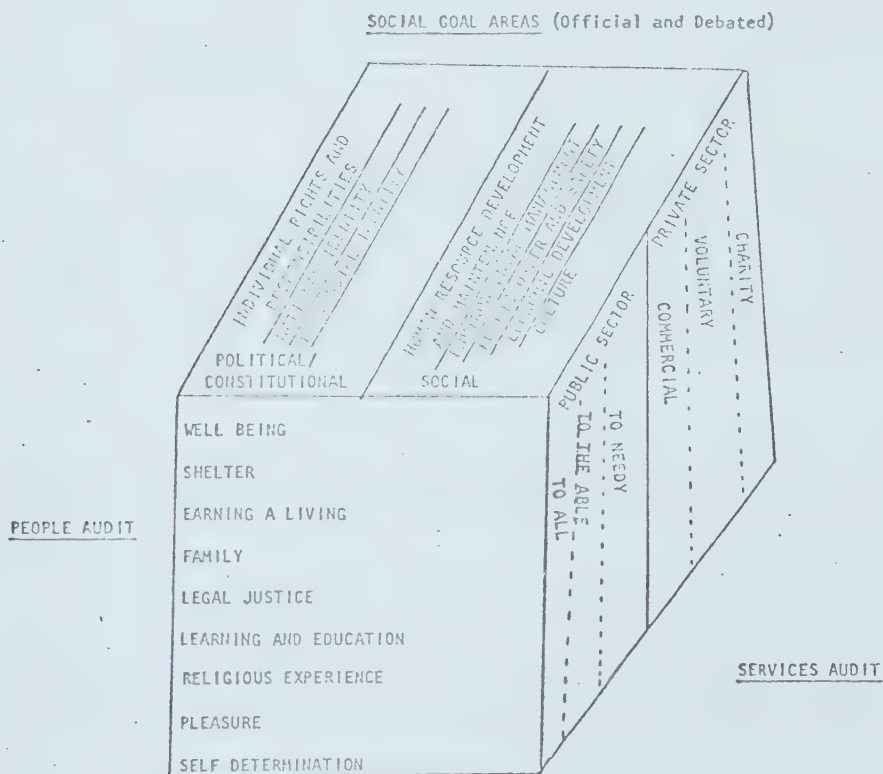




Finally, social services are classified first, on the basis of their location in either the public or private sector, and second, in terms of the manner in which they are offered to individuals.

- Services in the public sector
  - to all persons
  - to the able
  - to persons in need
- Services in the private sector offered
  - on a charitable basis
  - voluntarily
  - commercially

The model as a whole takes the following form:



Several points need to be made about this approach both by way of clarification and by way of warning to the reader:

1. The framework is a pragmatic one which evolved with our experiences in developing the Review. Thus many of the measures included in this report are not the best which we could have conceived. But we are prepared to defend them as the best possible.
2. The model does not make mention of such basic and important social processes as planning, the discovery of new knowledge, or social improvement through the application of technology. These processes are of a different order and are







dealt with in relation to the social services, as mechanisms for improvement and self-renewal in the social services.

3. The model avoids undue concentration on the issues of the moment (such as unemployment) and on persons who could be described as "have nots". A useful instrument for the creation of social intelligence must present a balanced view of society and the concerns of all individuals within it.

4. It was not assumed that social problems or the needs of individuals could be dealt with satisfactorily in the public sector alone. Any society must strike its own balance between the public and private sectors, and that balance must be created in the political arena. Thus, while most of the data presented below refers to the public sector, this is a reflection solely of the availability of data (there is very little data available on the operation of services in the private sector) and does not in any way imply a bias toward the public sector.

5. Lastly, those of our readers who are expert in a given area are likely to say about our treatment of that area, "You are documenting the obvious, telling us what we already know." In many respects such a criticism can be a fair one. But we feel compelled to ask, "What is obvious?" and "Obvious to whom?" Is the expert in health likely to know much about legal justice? Can the people be as well-informed as the so-called experts?

In short, we have no illusions about the Human Resources Review. It is not a social report. The framework is subject to revision. Our assumptions need to be challenged and tested.

But we do not apologize for the Review. In our view, it was necessary to begin the process of social stock-taking, to make a start. Thus, the question to be applied when evaluating this work should be "Is the Review as good as it could be, and does it point the way toward improved future work?"

## PLAN OF THE BOOK

The contents of the Review are classified on a large grid which lays out the elements of the previously described cubic model in two dimensions. This large grid is shown at the end of this section.

The purpose of the grid is to provide the reader with a ready frame of reference for reading the book. It is designed in such a way that the reader should be able to tell at a glance what is contained in the book and what is not, and how the various parts of the book are related to each other.







The contents of each section of the Review are classified on a smaller grid which represents the topic under discussion. These are also intended to give the reader a ready indication of what data is contained in each section. The elements of the grid which are blocked out contain data -- we know something (although, perhaps, not as much as we would like) about the variables it contains. When an element of the grid is left blank, this indicates that we do not have any information about the variables it contains.

The body of the Review is organized in nine sections largely according to the needs and concerns of individuals. The focus on the individual seemed to us to be a more appropriate way to structure the Review than developing it around either social goals or the social services.

The second last section of the Review is given over to a discussion of poverty which is treated in such a way as to illustrate the need for a holistic approach to human problems.

The final section of the Review is given over to a summary of the principal findings of our work and to a number of questions about social policy in Alberta. All of these questions follow directly from materials and data included in the preceding sections of the Review.

Ours is a wide angle view of Alberta society. This kind of approach is not without its risks, for the result can be a picture so broad and general as to be obvious. But much can also be said for trying to achieve perspective. A view of the whole is essential to the study of society, both to enhance insight into the direction of social change and to develop just policies for directing its course.





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## PARTICIPATION

Respect for the individual personality is the ultimate ideal of democratic government. Individual freedom or self-determination is a necessary condition for realizing the potential of individuals.

But this ideal does not justify every claim for freedom from restraint. It justifies only that freedom which is exercised responsibly, in harmony with the competing need for social order.

When dealing with these give-and-take influences between the individual and society, four general problems must be examined:

First, the nature of individual freedom and the requirements of social order.

Second, those individual actions generally outside the sphere of social restraint.

Third, the influence which individuals exert on social and political systems through participation in them.

Fourth, the impact of social and political structures on individuals.

Unfortunately, the first two of these have to be set aside for the moment (we will return to them in the final section of the Review where we deal with questions relating to social policy). Although these matters are of vital importance, there is virtually no data available which relates to them.

In this section of the Review, the third of these problems is discussed under the heading, Participation.

The fourth, which has to do with social limits on individual freedom and social guarantees respecting individual freedom of action, is treated in the next section of the Review, Legal Justice.

In the following parts of this section we attempt to lay out the problem of participation by (1) examining the nature and measurement of participation; (2) dealing with the one objective measure we have, electoral participation; and (3) identifying some of the features of the electoral structure which have an impact on participation in political processes.





THE NATURE AND  
MEASUREMENT OF  
PARTICIPATION

Participation is a slippery term to hold and define. The word, for all its strongly positive connotations, is almost never explicitly defined by those who use it. It therefore means different things to different people.

As a rough beginning, participation refers to the active roles individuals play in influencing and formulating major decisions which affect them. It has two important aspects. First, it is a goal in itself and also a means to other goals. It is a goal because individual must be given the chance to influence decisions affecting their lives. It is a means because it lays out a process for reaching major social decisions.

Second, it has both a personal and a social side. It involves individual desires concerning participation and those social forces which affect participation.

Participation in this sense refers to a wide range of actions at all levels of outward-directed human activity -- the political, economic and other activities of individuals or groups of individuals.

The main elements of this rudimentary definition also suggest some of the most important prerequisites of participation.

The resources of the individual must be appropriate. He must have information and knowledge of important channels of communication within society and know where he might gain support for his views.

The individual must be motivated. He must have a specific interest and find his actions related to that interest directly satisfying.

The social structure must be receptive. Channels for participation should be open and well-distributed. Entry points must be made available to all levels of society. Universal franchise must be permitted. The formation of non-governmental organizations as vehicles for participation should be allowed, indeed encouraged. Individuals should be made aware of their potentials for participation and their actual participation should be actively promoted.

The degree to which these basic conditions are met will, in large measure, determine the amount of participation by Albertans in making or influencing decisions which affect them directly.







## Measuring Participation

Perhaps the most obvious question concerning participation, since it is valued so highly, is "Just how much participation is there in Alberta?" But we can come at this question only directly. We must first ask, "What kind of participation?"

By and large, if we are looking for statistical answers, our response to the last question must be "political participation." Data concerning the whole range of participatory activities is simply not available. The only data available concerns political participation in the process of government, as measured by the vote.

Our data on political participation is also extremely limited, although somewhat suggestive of a wider range of concerns, Figure 1 illustrates the kind of data required to analyze political behavior comprehensively -- about a dozen different factors are shown. We have data relevant to only two of these factors (they are marked with an asterisk) -- political institutions and voting.

Thus, the discussion which follows is narrow in scope and needs to be approached with great caution. The first part of the discussion deals with participation in federal, provincial, and municipal elections in Alberta. The last part deals with the electoral process and the effects of present methods for organizing political constituencies in the province.

## ELECTORAL PARTICIPATION

Most of what we know of political participation in Alberta is speculative or hypothetical. We "know" that certain forms of participation such as membership in political parties is declining. We "know" that certain other forms are becoming more popular -- such as involvement in political action groups. We "know" that the style of participation is changing from working within the system to confrontation with it. We "know" that there are differences in the degree to which various groups participate -- men more than women, the middle-aged more than the young or the old, the educated more than the uneducated, the well-off more than the poor, whites more than Indian and Metis.

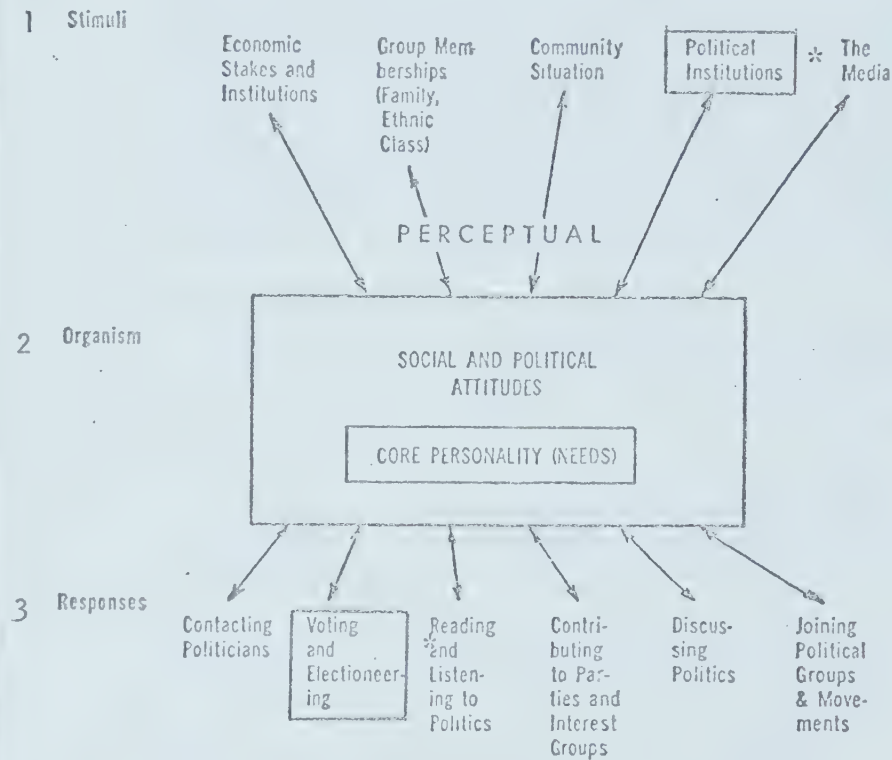
Unfortunately, there is very little statistical evidence to confirm or deny the value of these propositions in Alberta even though we may have every subjective and theoretical reason to believe that they are valid. Statistical information is available for two questions only: who in Alberta is entitled to vote and what number of people actually do vote in federal, provincial and municipal elections in Alberta.







FIGURE 1.—Paradigm for the Study of Electoral Behavior.



Four things should be noted about this diagram. In the first place, the relationship between the environmental stimuli and the person is chiefly a perceptual one, which means that all of the varieties of distortion, over-simplification, and selective attention which characterize perception apply here. It should be noted, in the second place, that this is a snapshot, not a motion picture; it is a diagram of one moment in time. Over a period of time, of course, many of the environmental pressures are internalized and become, in different form, part of the attitudinal and personality structure. In the third place, note that the relationships indicated by the arrows are reciprocal; each response *may* have an internal effect as well as an external effect, each perception *may* have an effect on the thing perceived as well as on the perceiver. Fourth, it should be stated explicitly, although obvious enough on the face of it, that these are illustrative selections of variables, not in any sense a complete roster of political stimuli or political responses.

Source: Robert E. Lane. Political Life: How and Why People Get Involved in Politics. New York: Free Press, 1959, page 6.



Who is Entitled to  
Vote in Alberta?

The qualifications for persons entitled to vote in federal, provincial and municipal elections are laid out in federal and provincial statutes.

According to the Canada Elections Act, and subject to certain exceptions, the general rule as to the qualifications of electors at a Federal election is that every person in Canada, man or woman, is qualified to vote and entitled to be registered as an elector on the list of electors for the polling division in which such person ordinarily resides at the time of the issuing of the writ ordering a Federal election in the electoral district if such person:

- a) is of the full age of eighteen years or will attain such age on or before polling day at such election;
- b) is a Canadian citizen or other British subject;
- c) in the case of a British subject other than a Canadian citizen, has been ordinarily resident in Canada for the twelve months immediately preceding polling day at such election; and
- d) at a by-election only, continues to be ordinarily resident in the electoral district until polling day at such by-election.

Among persons disqualified are prisoners, involuntary inmates of mental institutions, judges, and persons disqualified as a result of corrupt practices at federal elections.

The qualifications for provincial electors are virtually identical. According to the Provincial Elections Act, a person is qualified to be registered as an elector and to vote, who

- a) on the day on which the writ was issued was a Canadian citizen or British subject;
- b) is of the full age of nineteen years or will attain the full age of nineteen years on or before polling day;
- c) had, on the day on which the writ was issued resided in Alberta for at least twelve months immediately prior to that day; and
- d) was, on the day on which the writ was issued ordinarily resident in the electoral division and polling sub-division in which he or she seeks to vote.

Among those disqualified except as otherwise provided are judges of supreme, district, and circuit courts, prisoners,







mental patients and persons disqualified as a result of corrupt practices at provincial elections.

Qualifications for municipal elections are laid out in Alberta's Municipal Elections Act. In elections for Mayors and councillors, any person 19 years of age or more at the polling date may vote provided that he is a Canadian citizen or British subject with twelve months of continuous residence in the polling area before the election date or with his name on the municipal assessment roll. Only propriety electors, that is, those persons who own property and whose name appears on the assessment roll, may vote on municipal money by-laws.

Thus, it should be remembered that those entitled to vote form only a part of the total population. In 1967, for example, of a total population of 1,490,000, approximately 44 per cent or 655,000 people in the province were not eligible to vote.

#### Federal Elections

The Canadian method of voter registration has made it possible to measure voter turnout with considerable accuracy. The government prepares lists of persons eligible to cast ballots. The method of house-to-house canvassing assures that these lists are as complete and accurate as is humanly possible. As a result, potential voters are not deprived of the franchise merely because of their failure to register, and the level of turnout can be computed with a divisor which includes only those persons who meet the voting qualifications.

In each election year there has been considerable variation among the provinces in the levels of voter turnout. At least a dozen percentage points separating the provinces with the highest and lowest turnouts.

In the 1965 election, Alberta ranked 10th among the provinces and territories, with 534,870 out of a possible 725,447 voters showing up at the polls, (73.7%). Only Newfoundland and Quebec had lower turnouts (65.6% and 70.7%).

Voter turnout in 1968 was almost the same, with 567,416 out of 774,565 showing up (73.3%). (See Table 1)

#### Provincial Elections

Records for Alberta's provincial elections indicate a progressively lower turnout when compared with each preceding Federal election (see Table 2).







TABLE 1

## VOTERS ON THE LISTS AND VOTES POLLED AT THE FEDERAL GENERAL ELECTIONS OF 1962, 1963, 1965 and 1968

NOTE: Corresponding statistics for the General Elections of 1911, 1917, 1921 and 1925 are given in the 1926 Year Book, p. 82; those for 1926 in the 1945 edition, p. 66; those for 1930 and 1935 in the 1948-49 edition, p. 94; those for 1940 in the 1956 edition, p. 81; those for 1945 in the 1957-58 edition, p. 57; those for 1949, 1953 and 1957 in the 1962 edition, p. 71; and those for 1958 in the 1966 edition, p. 90.

PROVINCE OR TERRITORY	VOTERS ON THE LISTS				VOTES POLLED			
	1962	1963	1965	1968	1962	1963	1965	1968
Newfoundland	No. 215,565	No. 221,321	No. 226,082	No. 237,594	No. 155,263	No. 152,175	No. 148,392	No. 161,570
Prince Edward Island	No. 56,542	No. 57,029	No. 56,484	No. 58,216	No. 73,509 <sup>1</sup>	No. 69,486 <sup>1</sup>	No. 72,006 <sup>1</sup>	No. 51,225
Nova Scotia	No. 398,161	No. 401,874	No. 401,521	No. 412,791	No. 423,556 <sup>2</sup>	No. 419,352 <sup>2</sup>	No. 420,146 <sup>2</sup>	No. 339,600
New Brunswick	No. 302,313	No. 304,732	No. 304,734	No. 317,912	No. 252,053	No. 245,557	No. 244,184	No. 254,716
Quebec	No. 2,728,191	No. 2,807,634	No. 2,933,031	No. 3,083,260	No. 2,117,644	No. 2,143,246	No. 2,073,314	No. 2,229,345
Ontario	No. 3,397,647	No. 3,455,363	No. 3,609,895	No. 3,846,064	No. 2,719,020	No. 2,799,870	No. 2,770,222	No. 2,973,745
Manitoba	No. 508,920	No. 516,525	No. 517,928	No. 531,563	No. 393,023	No. 401,870	No. 382,362	No. 403,272
Saskatchewan	No. 502,495	No. 505,551	No. 508,733	No. 517,598	No. 426,426	No. 419,973	No. 404,631	No. 416,793
Alberta	No. 680,253	No. 700,920	No. 725,447	No. 774,565	No. 505,752	No. 552,164	No. 534,870	No. 567,416
British Columbia	No. 891,686	No. 921,074	No. 972,063	No. 1,059,959	No. 691,930	No. 740,229	No. 731,438	No. 804,108
Yukon Territory <sup>3</sup>	No. 6,762	No. 6,878	No. 6,660	No. 7,559	No. 5,978	No. 6,051	No. 5,760	No. 6,563
Northwest Territories <sup>4</sup>	No. 11,790	No. 11,856	No. 12,326	No. 13,807	No. 8,502	No. 8,663	No. 9,403	No. 9,563
TOTALS	No. 9,700,325	No. 9,910,757	No. 10,274,904	No. 10,860,888	No. 7,772,656	No. 7,958,636	No. 7,796,728	No. 8,217,916

<sup>1</sup> Each voter in the double-member constituency of Queens County, P.E.I., had two votes; in 1965, 26,250 voters on the list cast 44,895 votes. <sup>2</sup> Each voter in the double-member constituency of Halifax, N.S., had two votes; in 1965, 124,633 voters on the list cast 184,153 votes. <sup>3</sup> Electoral District of Yukon. <sup>4</sup> Electoral District of Mackenzie River in 1962 and Electoral District of Northwest Territories in 1963, 1965 and 1968.

Source: Canada Yearbook, 1969.



TABLE 2  
TURNOUT AT PROVINCIAL ELECTIONS AND COMPARISON WITH TURNOUT AT PRECEDING FEDERAL ELECTION

ALBERTA	NOVA SCOTIA	QUEBEC	BRITISH COLUMBIA	ONTARIO	MANITOBA
1935 82.6 + 17.3 1940 75.0 + 10.7 1944 69.3 + 5.0 1948 64.1 - 9.3 1952 59.4 - 9.9 1955 68.0 + 5.4 1959 63.9 - 10.5 *1963 55.5 - 18.8 *1967 62.7 - 11.0	1925 69.1 - 0.3 1928 70.9 - 1.5 1933 85.9 + 3.3 1937 79.7 + 3.3 1941 63.1 - 8.0 1945 64.7 - 7.0 1949 77.7 + 2.3 1953 75.8 + 4.3 1956 80.2 + 8.7	1923 62.0 - 13.7 1927 62.8 - 8.6 1931 77.1 + 0.9 1935 75.9 + 2.1 1936 76.6 + 2.2 1939 77.0 + 3.2 1944 72.2 + 6.1 1948 75.2 + 2.0 1952 75.9 + 1.9 1956 78.3 + 9.7	1924 65.9 - 1.8 1928 71.3 + 0.6 1933 73.07 - 0.02 1937 71.2 - 5.3 1941 72.7 - 5.2 1945 65.3 - 14.2 1949 73.7 + 4.7 1952 68.5 - 0.5 1953 70.6 + 5.5 1956 65.4 + 0.3	1923 57.0 - 6.1 1926 63.6 - 0.3 1929 55.9 - 8.0 1934 73.3 + 3.8 1937 70.5 - 3.5 1943 57.9 - 11.6 1945 66.9 - 7.6 1948 67.0 - 7.5 1951 64.6 - 10.5 1955 60.6 - 6.4 1959 58.9 - 20.6	1922 69.4 + 1.2 1927 69.9 - 7.1 1932 73.0 + 1.3 1936 66.1 - 9.2 1941 49.9 - 25.6 1945 55.8 - 19.7 1949 54.0 - 17.7 1953 60.4 + 1.0 1958 61.0 - 19.1 1959 65.6 - 14.5

Source: H.A. Scarrow. Patterns of voter turnout in Canada. Midwest Journal of Political Science. 5 (November, 1961).

\*Source: Government of Alberta.





In 1963, 403,444 out of a possible 720,910 voters were polled for a turnout of 55.6 per cent; and in 1967, 498,341 out of 795,034 Albertans voted, for a slightly better figure of 62.7 per cent.

Voter turnout for Alberta's last three provincial contests has been an average of 13.4 per cent below that of the preceding Federal elections.

#### Municipal Elections

No central record of voter participation in municipal elections is maintained in Alberta. However, interviews with persons familiar with the current state of affairs throughout Alberta suggest voter participation in smaller municipalities is extremely low. Edson, for example, with a population of 4,000 reported a maximum voter turnout of 15 per cent. An executive of the Alberta Urban Municipalities Association said that political apathy was widespread among Alberta towns and villages. He said that in many areas it was difficult to get anyone to even bother running for office, let alone come out to vote.

TABLE 3

#### VOTER TURNOUT IN SELECTED ELECTIONS IN ALBERTA'S CITIES

YEAR	EDMONTON	CALGARY	LETHBRIDGE	GRANDE PRAIRIE	CAMROSE
1960	20%		54%		
1961			49%		35%
1962	25%		59%		49%
1963		38%	43%		59%
1964			56%		27%
1965		44%	52%		48%
1966	59%		40%		43%
1967		35%	52%		12%
1968	39%	18%	53%		33%
1969		44%	33%		45%
1970					23%
Average	36%	36%	48%	22%	

Source: Office of the City Clerk in each center.







## Summary Comment

Two trends in electoral participation in Alberta seem reasonably clear. First, the degree of participation in the electoral process is decreasing. Second, the most voter interest is shown in federal elections, and the least in municipal elections, with interest in provincial elections falling in between.

Clearly, the data available on electoral participation in Alberta is grossly inadequate. If a high degree of voter participation is to be considered a social goal, then surely better data is required so that it might become known how much movement there is toward or away from that goal.

THE PROVINCIAL  
ELECTORAL SYSTEM

Canadian democracy is based on the one-man-one-vote principle. If the vote is viewed as a unit or purchasing power at the disposal of the voter, by which he may voice his demands, then each voter has, and exercises by law, one such unit.

The votes of individuals must be translated into legislative seats. There will inevitably be some distortion in this process, due simply to the mathematics of the situations. Any time 495,000-plus individual votes are compressed into 65 representative units (the number of MLAs) strictly proportional representation is impossible. This is because a six-place figure can generate more and finer distinct groups than can a two-place figure.

The process by which this translation is made is regulated by law. The balance of this section is concerned with the legal formulas for making the translation from popular vote to seats in the legislature.

Provincial  
Electoral  
Districts

The province is broken down into electoral districts or constituencies which correspond to seats in the Legislative Assembly. Seats in the Legislature are awarded to the candidate in each constituency with the greatest number of votes.

It is well known that considerable concern has been expressed at various times over the size of electoral districts in Alberta, as constituted for the provincial elections. And that this condition is by no means uncommon across Canada and elsewhere.

What are the facts about provincial electoral districts in Alberta?

A check of the voters lists in provincial constituencies shows that the number of total names on the list ranges from 4,595 in Dunvegan to 26,563 in Edmonton North East. In





other words, the largest electoral district is nearly six times as large as the smallest. Yet each has one representative.

The average or mean size of the districts is 11,997. The median, the point on each side of which fall exactly one half the districts, is 8,757. The most frequent magnitude is 7,000. (See Figure 2)

#### Representational Discrepancies

If those districts which may be considered urban are treated separately, the average size of such urban districts is 19,240. The average size of the remaining non-urban districts is 8,030. From this it may be seen that the average urban district is more than twice as large as the average non-urban district.

On the basis of these simple facts it might be concluded that the vote of a citizen in an urban district is worth less than one-half that of a citizen in a non-urban district, thereby leaving the urban citizen in a state of unfreedom. But on such an important issue a more systematic, if brief, analysis may be worth while.

There are two apparent results arising from discrepancies between urban and non-urban votes. One is the difference in the power of the two votes. The other is the distortion in translation, which favors the party securing the most votes at the expense of parties securing fewer votes.

The first means that more votes are required to elect an MLA in an urban district than in a non-urban constituency. The average winning vote for a candidate in a non-urban district is 2,779, while the average vote for a winning candidate in an urban district is 5,138. In fact, the average vote for a second place candidate in an urban district is 3,719 -- one-third greater than that achieved by the average winning candidate in a non-urban district.

In other words, the individual citizen's vote in a non-urban district can, in a manner of speaking, purchase  $1/2779$  of an MLA, while in an urban district the individual citizen's vote purchases only  $1/5138$  of an MLA. The urban citizen's vote is worth only 54.1 per cent of the non-urban citizen's vote.

If there were a greater number of candidates in a non-urban district this might be understandable. Then the winning candidate would be receiving a smaller number of votes, and a smaller proportion of the popular vote.

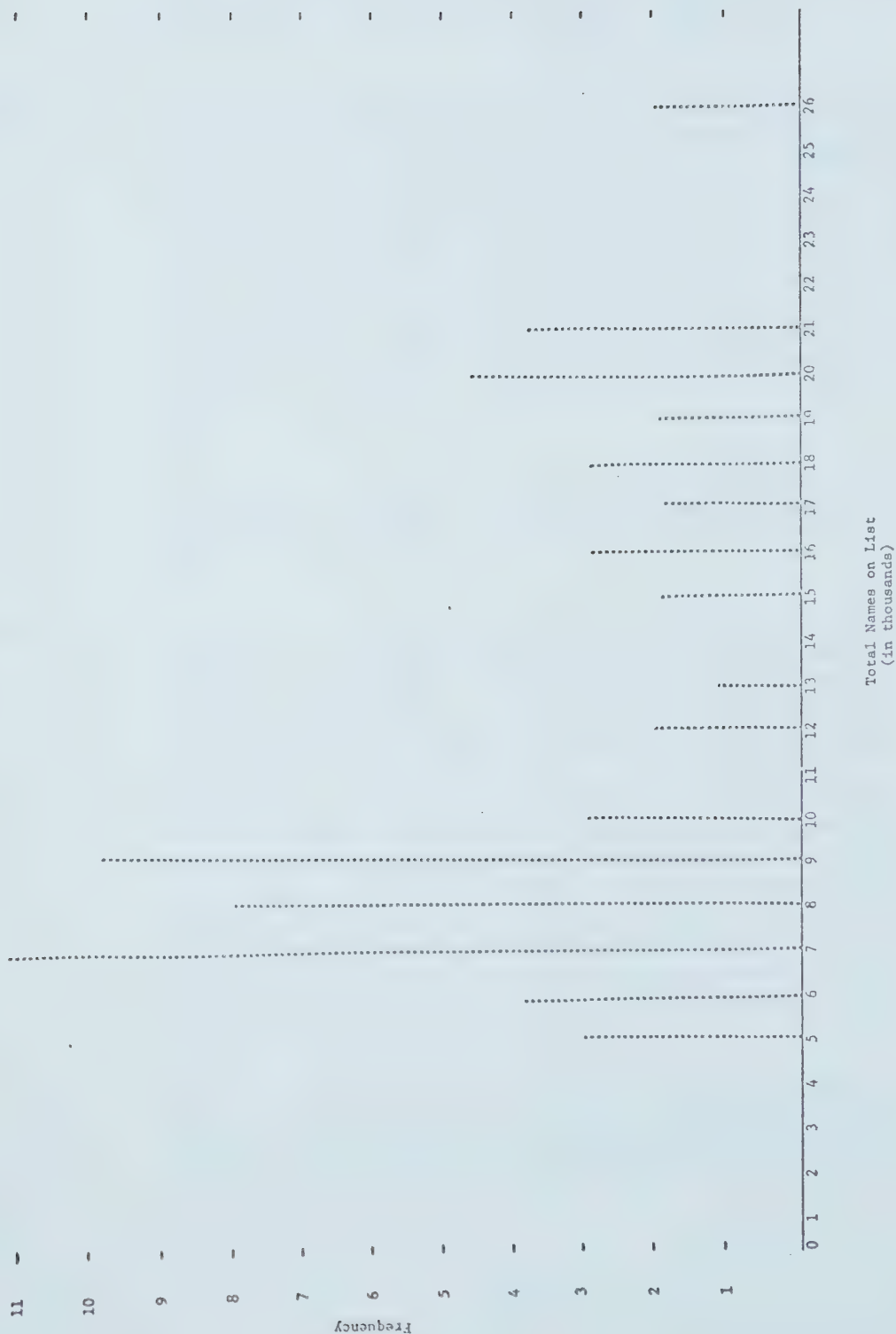






FIGURE 2

DISTRIBUTION OF DISTRICTS BY MAGNITUDE





But this is not the case. The average percentage of the winning vote in non-urban districts is 52.2. The average of the winning proportions in urban districts is 42.5 per cent. This means there is a definite devaluation of urban votes as compared to votes in non-urban districts.

#### Devaluation and Overvaluation

A glance at Table 4 shows that this has indeed been true for Alberta since 1948. Here we find that parties (1), (2) and (3) have all suffered a devaluation in the worth of their popular vote, while party (4) has benefited from an overvaluation. The average devaluation in the six elections since 1948 for party (1) has been 11.4 per cent, for party (2) it has been 12.2 per cent, and for party (3) it has been 9.8 per cent. The average overvaluation for party (4) has been 39.2 per cent. Disregarding plus and minus signs, the average distortion in the translation of popular votes to legislative seats for the last six elections has been 16.3 per cent for all parties.

Twice since 1948 this distortion has caused a party failing to achieve a majority of popular votes to receive a large legislative majority. This occurred in 1955 and 1967.

#### Summary Comment

We have seen that the provincial electoral system tends to distort or devalue certain votes (this is almost certainly true at the federal level as well). But it should be pointed out again that such distortion is ever present, and that apportionment of constituencies is a complex task.

While constituency boundaries must be sensitive and responsive to population distribution, this is not an either-or choice -- either absolute mathematical congruence or no representativeness. It is more a question of what citizens find as an acceptable distortion and the difficulty of reapportioning representation in a rapidly growing province. The choice is not between never reapportioning or reapportioning every year, but rather in finding an acceptable time and standard by which to reapportion from time to time.

Finally, what of the common view that one function of electoral laws is to ensure that a viable legislative majority is created in the process of translating votes? Do we have evidence of systematic distortion?







TABLE 4

## COMPARISON OF POPULAR VOTE TO LEGISLATIVE VOTE SECURED

				*****
	Parties	% Popular Vote	% Legislative Seats	Devaluation (-) Overvaluation (+)
1948	1*	-	-	-
	2**	18	4	-14
	3***	19	4	-15
	4****	56	92	+36
1952	1	4	3	-1
	2	22	6	-16
	3	14	3	-11
	4	56	87	+31
1955	1	9	5	-4
	2	31	26	-5
	3	8	4	-4
	4	46	65	+19
1959	1	24	2	-22
	2	14	2	-12
	3	4	0	-4
	4	56	97	+41
1963	1	13	0	-13
	2	20	2	-18
	3	9	0	-9
	4	55	95	+40
1967	1	26	9	-17
	2	11	3	-8
	3	16	0	-16
	4	45	86	+41

\* Progressive Conservative

\*\* Liberal

\*\*\* CCF- NDP

\*\*\*\* Social Credit

\*\*\*\*\* Based on the arithmetic difference between the proportion of popular votes secured and the proportion of legislative seats awarded

The data in the table are drawn from H.A. Scarrow, Canada Votes (New Orleans: Hauser Press, 1967), pp. 221-223 for the 1948, 1952, 1955 and 1959 elections and from P.C. Normandin, ed., The Canadian Parliamentary Guide (Ottawa, 1969) for the 1963 and 1967 elections.



## CONCLUDING NOTE

As mentioned previously in this report, one of the most glaring examples of impaired political opportunity or political inequality is the discrepancy between urban and non-urban votes. The practice in North America has been to regard a city vote as more potent than a country vote, and to assign more voting power to the rural sections by way of compensation.

The question arises why urban centres have not brought their political weight to bear on a remedy for the disparity.

While many individuals in the cities do not feel capable of taking a useful part in politics, others are extremely effective. Leaders of industry and society establish a solid rapport with governmental leaders because each needs the cooperation of the other. With such rapport, civic interests have little need for nominal representation in the legislature, particularly where power is concentrated in the hands of cabinet. This is even more true when one party has a preponderance of representation.

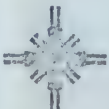
If major civic interests are served in this way, civic officials might well consider reapportionment to be disadvantageous. And this may be the reason pressure for reapportionment in favor of the cities has been sporadic and ineffectual.

There is, in fact, a suspicion that the vote, which is the political instrument of the citizen at large, is of a rather nominal value in the overall picture of civic participation in provincial politics. And that most citizens suffer from rather serious inadequacies of political self-confidence and initiative.

This would seem to be borne out by a study of people's relations to the Alberta Ombudsman, conducted by Dr. Karl Friedman of the University of Calgary.

On the question of citizen's grievances, a staggering 82 per cent of those interviewed felt that "sometimes politics and government seem so complicated that the average person can't really understand what's going on."

In so far as our democratic system is predicated on the assumption of widespread, informed and purposeful participation, this situation is a possible danger to its survival. At the same time it is a refutation of our belief in political equality, and a serious limitation of political opportunity.







## LEGAL JUSTICE

The law is a positive instrument for achieving certain social and individual goals.

Societies will always have crime for they must always recognize some border between acceptable and intolerable behavior.

One of the Basic ideals of Liberal Democracy is "freedom under the law." Because of the complexities of modern law and changing, subjective notions of freedom, any attempt to simplify this ideal is likely to run into difficulties. But generally speaking it can probably be assumed that freedom under the law has three aspects.

First, the law must mark out both areas of individual freedom of action and clearly defined prohibitions.

Second, the law must prevail and be made effective through observance and enforcement.

Third, the law must apply to all persons equally and bring special privileges to no one.

The balance between the rights of the individual and the requirements of social order is a very delicate one. Sometimes it is not easy to achieve, since in some ways the two are contradictory. For instance, the right of society to detain a person for suspicious behavior results in limiting the individual's freedom.

Yet it is imperative that an acceptable (the definition of acceptable is always changing in some degree) balance be struck between the two.

In our legal system certain safeguards have been introduced to make the contest between the individual and society a more even one. These safeguards include the rights of habeas corpus, ample time to prepare a defense, trial before a judge in an open court, the right of appeal and others. Obviously, many of these safeguards work in favor of the habitual law-breaker who has learned how to "beat the system" or bend it to meet his own desires. But our society leans toward the individual and the guarantee of his rights. Thus the ability of the habitual law-breaker to beat the system is one price which all citizens must pay for the very real benefits of our legal system.

The function of the legal system -- the courts, law enforcement services, correctional services, and so on -- is to apply the law. The courts hear and decide disputes, and enforce observance of the law on citizen and government official alike. Law enforcement services are concerned with observance and detection of infractions against the law. Correctional services have been established to carry out penalties imposed by the courts.





When the law and its application are clearly defined much of the operation of the legal system can be straightforward. But in many cases, the law requires interpretation -- the law itself may be ambiguous or the motives, character, and general attitudes of citizens may need to be clarified. This discretion to interpret the law is a source of great strength for it can allow for differences among individuals while establishing a general pattern. At the same time, however, it is a source of great concern for discrimination in the application of the law can result.

Such discretionary judgements are made at every phase of the operation of the legal system. If you are speeding, for instance, the officer may or may not give you a ticket. Then a decision whether to press or drop charges is made. There is also the discretion to negotiate justice, as when the accused agrees to plead guilty to a lesser charge. And the court also has discretion with respect to sentence.

#### ANALYZING THE LEGAL SYSTEM

Many of the features of the law and the legal system as they are described above seem simple and easy to grasp. But on closer examination, many of the same features make the law extremely complex and difficult to understand in any detail.

Three factors in particular make it difficult to analyze the law and the legal system. The first of these has to do with the nature of violations of the law. Actions which have been declared illegal by a majority in the community may seem acceptable or legitimate to specific individuals, and vice versa. Some crimes are highly visible to society, while others are unknown. Some crimes have no immediate victims, while others prey upon individuals or victimize large segments of the population. Some violate obsolete laws, while others violate laws which are central to society. And some crimes may be dealt with informally, while others require the full formal attention of society.

The second involves the use of discretion within the legal system. It is popular knowledge that the legal system does not deal with people uniformly -- among the factors that are associated with discrepancies are age, sex, income, race, the situation in which the offence occurred and so on. But at the present time it is difficult to assess the ways in which these discretionary powers are actually used. Discretion is exercised by one individual, a judge or a police officer for example, in relation to another in a one-to-one situation. As such, it is difficult to predict or record.

The third factor is the lack of enough good information to undertake a comprehensive analysis of the legal system. Much necessary information is simply not collected. That information which is available is not up-to-date, cannot be compared,







and cannot be used to follow an offender or an offence through the legal system. Until such a time as better information is made available on the nature of the law and the structures and processes of the legal system, statistics will remain seriously limited and biased estimates.

But it is imperative that the following data be considered. While the statistics presented below are biased and limited, they are representative of the only available information concerning the legal system.

Following this section, our discussion is organized in three parts. The first examines and presents data relevant to the basic ingredients of individual freedom. The second deals with the nature and extent of crime in Alberta. The third is concerned with the structure and workings of Alberta's legal system.

Of course, what follows is not a detailed picture of the legal system. It is illustrative of certain basic principles and available data, and indicative of the work still to be done.

#### BASIC INGREDIENTS OF INDIVIDUAL FREEDOM: PROCEDURAL AND SUBSTANTIVE RIGHTS

There are really two ingredients of individual freedom:

First, there are guarantees of those things which men want for their own sake -- for example, freedom of religion and association. These are the substantive ingredients of individual freedom.

Second, there are guarantees concerning the means for making the achievement of these substantive rights possible -- for example, the right to a fair and speedy trial, and protection from excessive bail. These are the procedural ingredients of individual freedom.

In other words, Canadian law and the legal system value both certain ends and specific means for achieving those ends.

There are three parts to the following discussion of these basic rights. The first deals with human rights as popularly defined. This section also includes a discussion of privacy. The second is concerned with the citizen's right of appeal against administrative decisions made by governments. The last deals with private law, and the individual's right to acquire or give up certain rights through contracts.

#### Human Rights

The conditions of human rights and fundamental freedoms under which Canadians are to live have been formulated in the Canadian Bill of Rights of 1960.





These freedoms are listed as:

- \* The right of the individual to life, liberty, security of the person and enjoyment of property, and the right not to be deprived thereof except by due process of law;
- \* The right of the individual to equality before the law and the protection of the law;
- \* Freedom of religion;
- \* Freedom of speech;
- \* Freedom of assembly and association; and
- \* Freedom of the press.

These freedoms have been further reinforced by the Alberta Human Rights Act of 1966, the second such provincial Act in Canada, which prohibits discrimination on the grounds of "race, religious beliefs, color, ancestry or place of origin."

Enforcement of the act is in the hands of an administrator to whom complaints must be made. The system is passive; the administrator can act only on the receipt of a complaint. He endeavors to make a settlement, and if this is not successful, a board of inquiry may be appointed.

The Human Rights Branch makes efforts to publicize its existence and authority, and a volunteer agency, the Alberta Human Rights Association has been formed to assist citizens with complaints.

During 1969 the Human Rights Branch received 78 complaints. On a per capita basis most complaints came from Negroes and Native peoples. Many of the cases involved prejudices in public accommodation and service.

The problems associated with the human rights of Native peoples involve much more than the important, if abstract, issues of constitutional status. It is generally agreed that "discrimination is a way of life" for Native peoples in Alberta. The discrimination in question is one based on race which is prohibited by the Alberta Human Rights Act. While the existence of discrimination is undeniable its presence is often hard to specify. Often in Alberta it is subtle and hard to pin down. "But it's very real to the individual experiencing it."

Several efforts regarding the relationships of Native peoples in Alberta are underway. The Native Court Worker Association program is one. At present, it has five Native court workers, and it hopes there will be eighteen in the near future. The Association realizes that Natives tend to fear the police and





not understand the law. Its aim is to ameliorate the effects of these conditions by holding workshops on reserves to familiarize Natives with the nature of the law and the role of the police and by working with such Natives as appear in court throughout Alberta. Officials are of the view that the Association is making progress. One reported that the incidence of the arrest of Native peoples has been reduced in the six years of the Association's existence.

Discrimination is extremely difficult to combat. Obviously, it cannot be legislated out of existence. There are two other sources of difficulty as well. The first of these is the absence of well-defined criteria of discrimination. For instance, the Provincial Jury Act states: "If one of the parties to an action being tried with a jury is a woman she is entitled to have half of the jury composed of men. "Similarly one order of the Board of Industrial Relations prohibits a female employee from starting or ending a work shift between the hours of 12:01 a.m. and 6:00 a.m. unless the employer provides safe transportation from or to her home. Are these instances of discrimination?

The second source of difficulty is that the definition of who needs protection is subject to change. For example, the Report of the Royal Commission on the Status of Women recommends that human rights agencies give special attention to women's rights. The Alberta legislation does not, at present, apply to discrimination on the basis of sex.

#### The problem of privacy

There is one right which is not specifically mentioned in the Canadian or Alberta human rights legislation. Yet it is regarded by most persons as a fundamental, perhaps even ultimate right. This is the right to privacy.

The right to privacy is no easier to define than other human rights. After all, what is privacy? What are individual rights regarding privacy?

The absence of a clear definition of privacy places government in a precarious position. "Under these circumstances, legislative action is a very delicate matter as it must only occur in areas of recognizable government responsibility and not in legitimizing one set of opinions rather than another [Report of the Simpson Committee on the Invasion of Privacy to the Alberta Legislature, n.d., p. 6]."

Whatever it is, it seems that privacy is something to be traded off for the benefits conferred by accessible information.

The Simpson Committee in Alberta defined four types of invasion of privacy: intrusion on a person's seclusion; public disclosure of private facts about an individual; publicity that







places an individual in a false light in the public eye; and appropriation for advantage of a person's name or license. The committee was satisfied that the last two examples were adequately protected by the laws of slander, libel and trespass for profit or gain.

With respect to the first two instances, a great deal of potential for the invasion of privacy now exists. "The potential if not the will exists in Alberta today to produce a personal dossier on each citizen which would make the dossiers of the Nazi regime look like Boy Scout records," said one authority. There appears to be no indication that such a will exists, as yet.

There are a variety of public safeguards in the field of privacy. File information is confidential, among the credit bureaus, and is never available to non-subscribers. Eighty-five per cent of the information held comes directly from clients, with only fifteen per cent from the public record. And individuals are supposed to have the right to examine their own records, although the Simpson Committee expressed concern that provisions for this are inadequate.

Perhaps the major collector and holder of social information is the government. Both the Canadian and Alberta Statistics Bureau Acts protect the anonymity of individuals who may be connected with the information.

The third major gatherer of social information is social science researchers. Here the danger to the individual's privacy lies not so much in single facts known about him as in several facts known in combination. But since social science research depends entirely on voluntary cooperation, its effects may not be too significant.

However, it could be that a society about which a full and fully scientific report could be written, would be one with little privacy for individual citizens.

Additional Protection  
for Citizens Against  
Government: the  
Ombudsman<sup>1</sup>

An increasingly important aspect of public legislation is the authority which most bills give to the persons administering an Act to make rules and regulations concerning its operation. These rules are not reviewed by the Legislature and seldom come to the courts for an opinion.

Consequently, it is basic and important for citizens to have some avenue against administrative decisions which they regard as unjust. In Alberta, this avenue of appeal is provided by the office of the Ombudsman.





The Alberta Ombudsman is empowered to make investigations of acts and decisions of government officials and agencies, on the basis of citizens' complaints. However, this applies only to complaints which have exhausted all existing channels of appeal. The Ombudsman may at his own discretion refuse to investigate (1) complaints which he judges to be trivial; (2) complaints about decisions more than twelve months old; or (3) complaints about decisions which do not directly affect the person making the complaint.

When the Ombudsman finds a complaint justified, he reports his opinions and recommendations to the appropriate minister. If nothing is done he may bring the matter to the attention of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council or the Legislature. During 1968 the Alberta Ombudsman, George McClellan, received 535 complaints, and in the first ten months of 1969, 627 complaints were received. About one-third of all complaints which qualify for a full investigation turn out to be justified and require action, or 7.5 per cent of the total complaints.

Most complaints involving a government agency concerned the Workman's Compensation Board. Although most complaints were rectified upon receipt of notice, two submissions went to the Lieutenant-Governor in Council.

With the Ombudsman, the onus is on the individual to launch an appeal. There is evidence that many people do not know their rights in this regard.

An example of the lack of knowledge of individual rights was demonstrated in a poll taken in Edmonton. The question was what action should be taken to collect a small loan. Forty-seven per cent said they would contact a lawyer, twenty-two per cent said they would try the small claims court, twenty-one per cent said they would write a letter and eleven per cent made no real response.

The same pattern was manifest in the case of automobile damage and breach of contract. When informed of the services offered by the small claims court, eighty per cent said they would use the facilities.

The conclusions are that people will use their rights if they know them, and that the dissemination of basic knowledge of the law is to be important if legal justice is to be served.







The law of contract considers only whether or not a contract exists, not whether it is fair. The law rests on two fundamental propositions: that a man is free to acquire contractual rights and to undertake obligations, and that a man must fulfil the bargains he has made with another.

The law apparently assumes that contracts are entered into after negotiations by parties on an equal footing. Such, however, is not always the case.

Today there is widespread use of a standard form by the seller, which is offered to the buyer on a take-it-or-leave-it basis. The buyer has little opportunity to influence the conditions of sale. The agreement is often drawn up by a legal authority with only one purpose in mind -- the protection of the seller, sometimes to the disadvantage of the buyer.

In Alberta some protection is offered consumers by Section 19 of the Conditional Sales Act, which makes the seizure of goods unenforceable. But few people know of the protection afforded by the act.

Action on bringing the law of contract up to date has been hampered by lack of knowledge. The extent to which standard form contracts are used in various businesses appears to be unknown. Nor are the effects of these contracts on Alberta society known.

Two kinds of contracts are of particular concern, both nationally and in Alberta. One has to do with consumer contracts and the other deals with landlord-tenant relationships.

There is a dual problem with consumer contracts in that they concern not only the goods transferred, but the means of payment. Since the financing of the sale is often as profitable as the sale itself, the means of payment is important. The financing of transactions and the transfer of goods both are largely subjects of provincial legislation.

A good deal of provincial legislation concerns the quality of goods, the essential obligation of the seller and the remedies open to both parties in the case of breach of contract. The Direct Sales Cancellation Act establishes a cooling-off period to protect the gullible consumer in high-pressure door-to-door sales.

The Conditional Sales Act protects the seller's interest when goods have been sold without full payment, and the Credit and Loan Agreement Act stipulates that buyers shall be informed of all credit terms.





Landlords and tenants provide another example of unequal bargaining positions, in that the terms of tenancy contracts are usually in favor of the landlord.

Alberta legislation for such matters is contained in the Landlord and Tenant Act, which deals with the means of lease termination only. A recent amendment designs a mechanism to be used by the tenant to recover the due portion of his damage deposit. In May 1970 the government created a new mediation board to deal with landlord-tenant disputes. At present, however, such a board has been established only in Calgary.

To what extent further improvements could be made to ensure legal rights requires more research and consideration.

A Final Matter:  
The Question of  
Harassment

The wide array of discretionary powers in the legal system leads to another problem: the question of harassment. Although the term is usually associated with law enforcement officers and activities, it may also be used to define those circumstances which lead to the loss of freedom for an individual without due process of law.

Debtors, for instance, may be harassed by creditors. Creditors employ whatever means are available to collect their debts, including seizure of property, foreclosure, eviction, the garnisheeing of wages and the use of bill collectors. The point is that such activities tend to limit the debtor's freedom, whether or not they are legal or justified.

To protect debtors from harassment, the Debtors Assistance Board was set up in Alberta in 1943. It is designed to help people who cannot manage their own affairs.

In 1950 the board had 500 clients. In 1968 this number had increased to 5,000 clients. The board has offices only in Edmonton and Calgary, leaving many Albertans without convenient access to it.

Harassment by law enforcement officers usually occurs in the twilight zone between illegal actions or areas where the law has been slow to adjust to changing values and those which are legal and necessary.

In some contexts surveillance, spot check-ups or questioning may be useful preventative techniques in keeping order. The problem is to determine what is justified. Dr. Packer of the Alberta Human Rights Association has suggested a formation of a Civilian Review Board to rule on illegal harassment.





Popular accounts have it that some people appear to be more liable to harassment than others. Non-whites, young people and poorer people are said to be more often harassed than others. At this time there is no evidence available to clarify this issue. Firm judgements must await further study.

Two methods of measuring the extent of harassment have been considered. The first involved tracking persons through the legal system and determining the drop-out rate between arrest and trial. By looking for patterns among those retained and those dropped, it was thought that harassment might be established. However, insufficient records were available to permit this.

A second method contemplated involved an analysis of the use of writs of assistance in Alberta. These writs empower officers to enter and search premises without a search warrant. They are used under federal statutes such as the Narcotics Control Act, the Food and Drug Act, the Customs Act and the Excise Act. Searches desired by local police relevant to these acts are carried out on request by the R.C.M.P.

The writ is a general warrant and must be issued on demand for an indefinite duration, without any discretion on the part of the courts. By contrast a search warrant is issued only by a court upon justification, and carries severe restrictions.

In the City of Edmonton during 1968, 80 searches were carried out under writs in connection with the Narcotics Control Act, and 58, or 72.5 per cent turned up damaging evidence. In the logic of writs, this would seem to indicate that the use of writs was justified, and that the police have been restrained in their use of them.

#### THE NATURE AND EXTENT OF CRIME IN ALBERTA

If there are questions of what constitute human rights and the just treatment of individuals, there is also a question of what constitutes crime. And of course one's attitude toward crime is dependent on one's own sens

However, for official purposes the law has provided an answer. In a formal sense, crime is a form of behavior committed by an individual or group which has been declared illegal by the group which holds social power within society.

In this section the nature and extent of crime in Alberta is dealt with under the following headings: the limitations of available crime statistics; criminality in Alberta; the effect of traffic cases; convictions and punishment. The next section focuses on the operation of parts of the legal system.







## The Problem of Statistics

The problems of working with official statistics should not be underestimated. At present, offences cannot be compared across agencies -- that is, police statistics cannot be compared with court statistics, and neither can be compared to institution statistics. Furthermore, disparities can be found in official statistics, despite the Dominion Bureau of Statistics' reputation for accuracy. And very little comparative information is available.

## Criminality in Alberta

At the beginning it must be recognized that the actual occurrence of crime is a relatively unknown quantity. The most accurate estimate of the extent of crime is generally accepted to be the number of actual offences known to the police. Within Alberta, as in the other provinces of Canada, crimes are reported in four categories: Criminal Code, Federal Statutes, Provincial Statutes and Municipal Bylaws. The total number of offences, the offences in each of these categories and the disposition of these offences is reported in Table 1.

This table shows an increase in crime between 1967 and 1968, due to increases in offences against the Criminal Code and Provincial Statutes. Offences against Federal Statutes and Municipal Bylaws decreased during this time.

Table 2 gives a more detailed analysis of the distribution of offences for the province as a whole. Here data from each of the law enforcement offices which reported to the Uniform Crime Reporting system is recorded. This gives a geographical picture of the incidence of crime in Alberta.

Three reporting units -- Calgary, Edmonton and the R.C.M.P. -- comprise over 90 per cent of offences against federal statutes. The contribution made to offences against federal statutes by Lethbridge is most exceptional, and no explanation has been offered.

The relationship between age and sex categories and the offence rate can be seen in Table 3. From this distribution it is evident that the majority of offences are of a property nature. Far more revealing, however, is the impact of age upon the sex distribution. For both the federal and provincial statutes more juvenile females were charged than juvenile males. This reversal may be due to the definition of juvenile -- under 16 for males and under 18 for females.

It suggests that 16 and 17 are ages of relatively high involvement in minor criminality.





Table 1: Number of Offences and their Disposition for Alberta, 1967 and 1968

OFFENCE	1967	1968
<b>Criminal Code</b>		
Actual Offences . . . . .	75,505	83,788
Cleared by Charge . . . . .	19,495	20,788
Cleared Otherwise . . . . .	14,101	17,277
Percentage Cleared . . . . .	44.5	45.1
Offence rate per 100,000 population	6,045	6,496
<b>Federal Statutes</b>		
Actual Offences . . . . .	3,874	3,519
Cleared by Charge . . . . .	3,266	2,481
Cleared Otherwise . . . . .	327	651
Percentage Cleared . . . . .	92.7	89.0
Offence rate per 100,000 population	310	273
<b>Provincial Statutes</b>		
Actual Offences . . . . .	40,562	56,654
Cleared by Charge . . . . .	38,597	9,202
Cleared Otherwise . . . . .	1,196	43,110
Percentage Charged . . . . .	98.1	92.3
Offence rate per 100,000 population	3,247	3,250
<b>Municipal By-laws</b>		
Actual Offences . . . . .	5,973	5,613
Cleared by Charge . . . . .	2,875	2,396
Cleared Otherwise . . . . .	2,811	2,600
Percentage Charged . . . . .	95.2	89.0
Offence rate per 100,000 population	478	435
<b>Total Offences</b>		
Actual Offences . . . . .	125,914	138,060
Cleared by Charge . . . . .	64,233	68,914
Cleared Otherwise . . . . .	18,435	21,445
Percentage Charged . . . . .	65.7	65.4
Offence rate per 100,000 population	10,080	10,704

Source: D.B.S. Catalogue Number 85-205, 1967 and 1968.





Table 2: Distribution of Law Enforcement in Alberta, 1967 \*

Location	Criminal Code						Federal Stat- utes	Provi- ncial Stat- utes	Muni- cipal By- Laws
	Reported	Not Found	Actual	Cleared Charge	Other	Pensions Charge			
Barrhead	138	3	135	63	17	47		80	9
Blainmore (RCMP)	105	26	79	24	23	21	1	76	6
Bonnyville	78	15	63	61		61		45	2
Brooks (RCMP)	197	18	179	34	35	34	1	118	7
Calgary	19,945	179	19,766	5152	2682	4481	217	5961	2439
Camrose	379	58	321	112	46	101	7	306	59
Cardston	119	8	111	70	13	75	3	193	30
Clareholm	192	46	146	30	67	24	4	64	3
Coaldale	53	4	51	24	3	19		48	8
Consort	11		11	5	2	6		1	
Devon	36	4	32	17	3	23		19	1
Didsbury	48	4	44	4	15	2	1	14	12
Drayton Valley	138	4	138	61	42	57	11	61	2
Drauheller (RCMP)	504	74	430	140	110	122	1	204	4
Edmonton	13		12	8	1	10		10	
Edson	32,378	1199	31,179	6263	7476	5156	357	8598	2698
Elk Point (RCMP)	245	3	242	81	46	83	4	162	8
Fairview (RCMP)	88	6	82	38	42	57	5	146	
Falher	14		14	8	4	8	21	54	
Fort MacLeod (RCMP)	14	2	12	11		8		44	
Fort McMurray (RCMP)	190	13	177	74	23	84	2	583	2
Fort Saskatchewan	685	106	579	214	90	226	7	561	2
Grande Prairie (RCMP)	100	1	99	53	4	59	9	54	42
Hanna	640	105	535	139	71	163	1	429	5
High Prairie (RCMP)	17		17	16		16	1	121	1
High River (RCMP)	140	6	134	82	10	76		202	4
Hinton	141	22	119	35	24	37		115	
Innisfail (RCMP)	156	3	153	105	10	83	4	163	6
Lacombe	51		51	45		49		40	13
Leduc	101	3	98	44	13	44	2	166	
Lethbridge	60		60	31	1	35		130	4
McLennan	2719	36	2682	1114	255	964	934	859	18
Medicine Hat	11		11	10		10		5	
Morinville	1349	189	1160	243	211	298	42	342	123
Olds (RCMP)	49	1	48	32	9	22		32	4
Peace River (RCMP)	157	15	142	37	17	36		92	2
Picture Butte	494	143	351	116	102	118	2	342	1
Pincher Creek	50	5	45	2	5	2		21	18
Ponoka	112	6	106	61	11	59	3	356	
Provost	82		82	78	3	81	1	280	19
Redcliff	1		1	1		1		1	
Red Deer (RCMP)	33		33	5	5	9			
Rimbey	1157	76	1081	253	98	286	23	517	13
Rocky Mountain House	61	3	58	44		41		54	14
St. Albert (RCMP)	251	87	163	87	22	91	81	240	33
St. Paul (RCMP)	178	6	172	77	16	50	8	156	11
Sherwood Park (RCMP)	197	21	176	53	64	53	18	245	1
Slave Lake (RCMP)	54	2	52	2	4	2		60	
Stettler (RCMP)	169	36	133	38	31	42	2	162	1
Stony Plain	226	25	201	36	36	43	1	100	
Sundre	74	9	65	33	7	37		147	
Page Missing in D.B.S. Report									
Swan Hills (RCMP)	52	2	50	11	9	11		42	29
Taber	139		139	11	2	108		420	2
Tofield	33	4	29	12	13	12		27	
Valleyview	15		15	12	3	12		75	
Vegreville (RCMP)	87	4	83	44	4	40	5	82	4
Vermilion (RCMP)	80	2	78	28	25	23		108	
Vulcan	35	5	30	29	2	29		17	17
Wainwright (RCMP)	229	29	200	72	18	44	1	119	3
Westlock	123	48	75	72	1	72		66	11
Wetaskiwin	295	9	286	114	3	131		426	43
Whitecourt (RCMP)	51		51	24	21	24	7	153	2
RCMP Provincial	20,432	2329	18,103	5399	3165	5790	2201	21,740	205
Total	79,772	4267	75,505	19,495	14,101	18,159	3874	40,562	5973

Source: D.B.S. Catalogue Number 85-205.

\* Offences for those reporting units with "RCMP" in parentheses are included again in RCMP Provincial.



Table 3: Distribution of Offences by Type for Age and Sex Categories, Alberta, 1968<sup>1</sup>

OFFENCE	ACTUAL NUMBER	CLEARED		ADULTS		JUVENILE	
		CHARGE	OTHER	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE
Criminal Code							
Personal	8,236	2,669	4,613	2,505	152	79	13
Property	75,353	17,788	12,642	12,915	1553	2039	294
Federal Statutes	3,519	2,481	651	2,219	155	101	129
Provincial Statutes	45,140	43,551	917	39,614	3214	75	112
Municipal By-Laws	5,613	2,396	2,600	1,295	448	12	---
TOTALS	137,861	68,885	21,423	58,548	5522	2306	548

<sup>1</sup> Offences included in the "personal" category are murder, attempted murder, manslaughter, rape, other sexual offences, wounding and assaults.

Source: D.B.S. Catalogue Number 85-205.



## Increasing criminality

There have been considerable changes in the number and types of cases appearing before the court system in recent years. Table 4 presents an alarming picture of rapidly increasing criminality in the past 50 years.

The total number of convictions rose from 42,148 in 1901 to 4,066,957 in 1965. Translated into rates per thousand persons (16 and older), this is an increase from 1.24 to 32.01 -- a 25- fold increase.

Ninety-eight per cent of this increase is in summary convictions, and traffic offences accounted for 90 per cent of the increase in summary convictions. In fact, indictable convictions have declined from 13.4 per cent of convictions in 1901 to 1.0 per cent in 1966.

The suggestion, therefore, is that the rapid increase in offences and convictions is not due to a rampant increase in serious crime, but rather to the rapid growth (and misuse) of motor vehicles.

Table 5 contains the type of information presented in Table 4 from 1965 to 1968, the last year for which information is available. Between 1965 and 1968 Alberta had a population growth of 5.2 per cent, from 1,450,000 to 1,526,000. During this time there was a decrease in offences concerned with federal statutes of 37 per cent, an increase in offences against municipal bylaws of 27 per cent, against provincial statutes of 39 per cent, and against the criminal code of 46 per cent.

It should be noted from Table 6 that when the number and percentage of convictions by type from 1960 to 1967 are considered, a pattern quite similar to that in Table 4 can be seen. Compared to Canada, Alberta has a somewhat higher percentage of indictable and summary convictions (excluding traffic) and a lower percentage of convictions due to traffic. Traffic offenses reached 75 per cent of the total convictions in 1964, and 78 per cent of the summary convictions. The lowest contribution was in 1967, when traffic offences were 63 per cent of the total and 66 per cent of the total summary convictions. The percentage of convictions of an indictable nature, however, has remained relatively constant.

## Effect of Traffic Cases

Vast numbers of traffic cases have been removed from the courts with the initiation of a voluntary payment and a guilty plea included with the ticket itself. In spite of this there has been an increase in summary convictions. Offences of this type require investigation and prosecution, and make large demands on the time of law enforcement







Table 4: Changes in the Nature of Criminality for Canada, 1901 - 1966

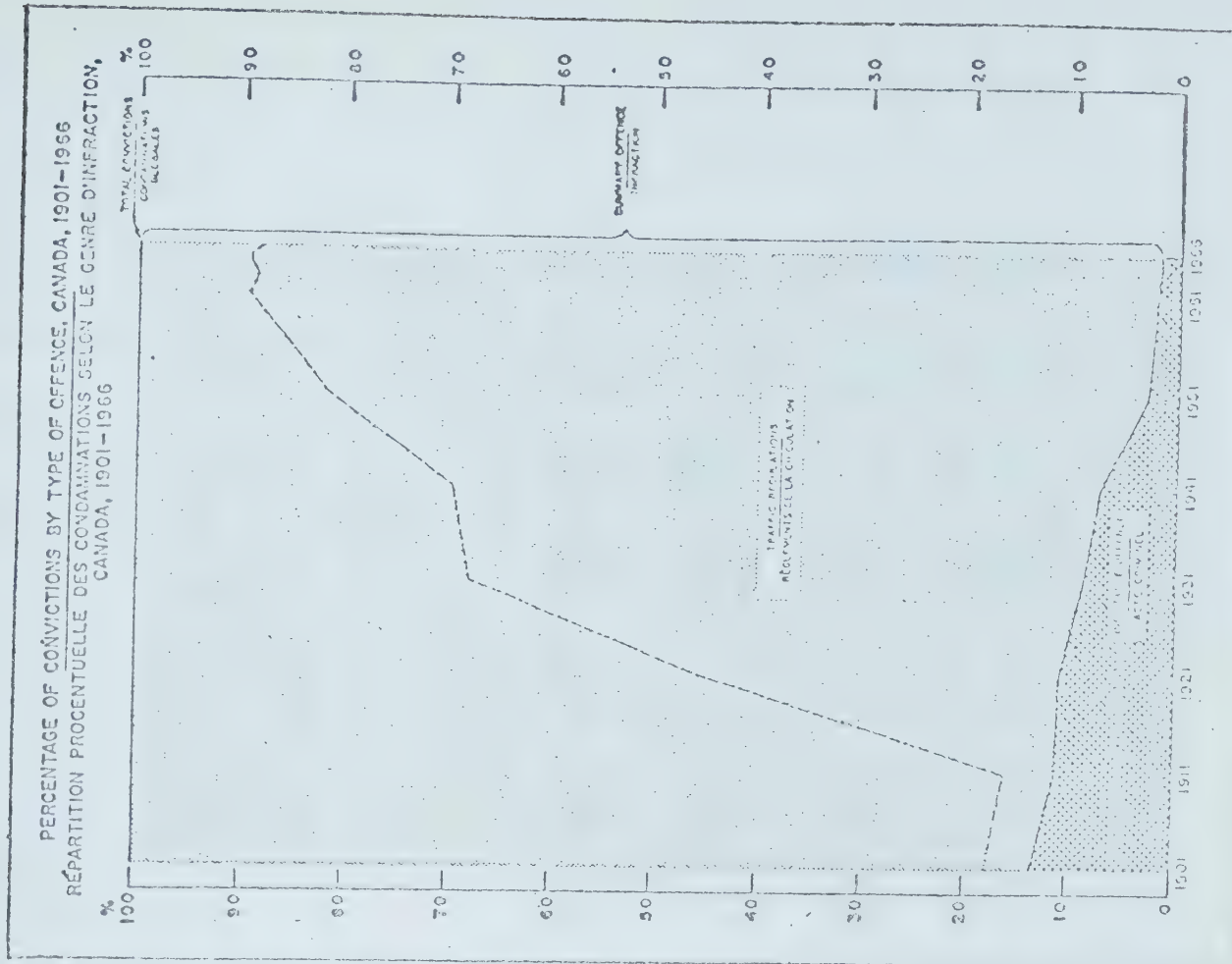
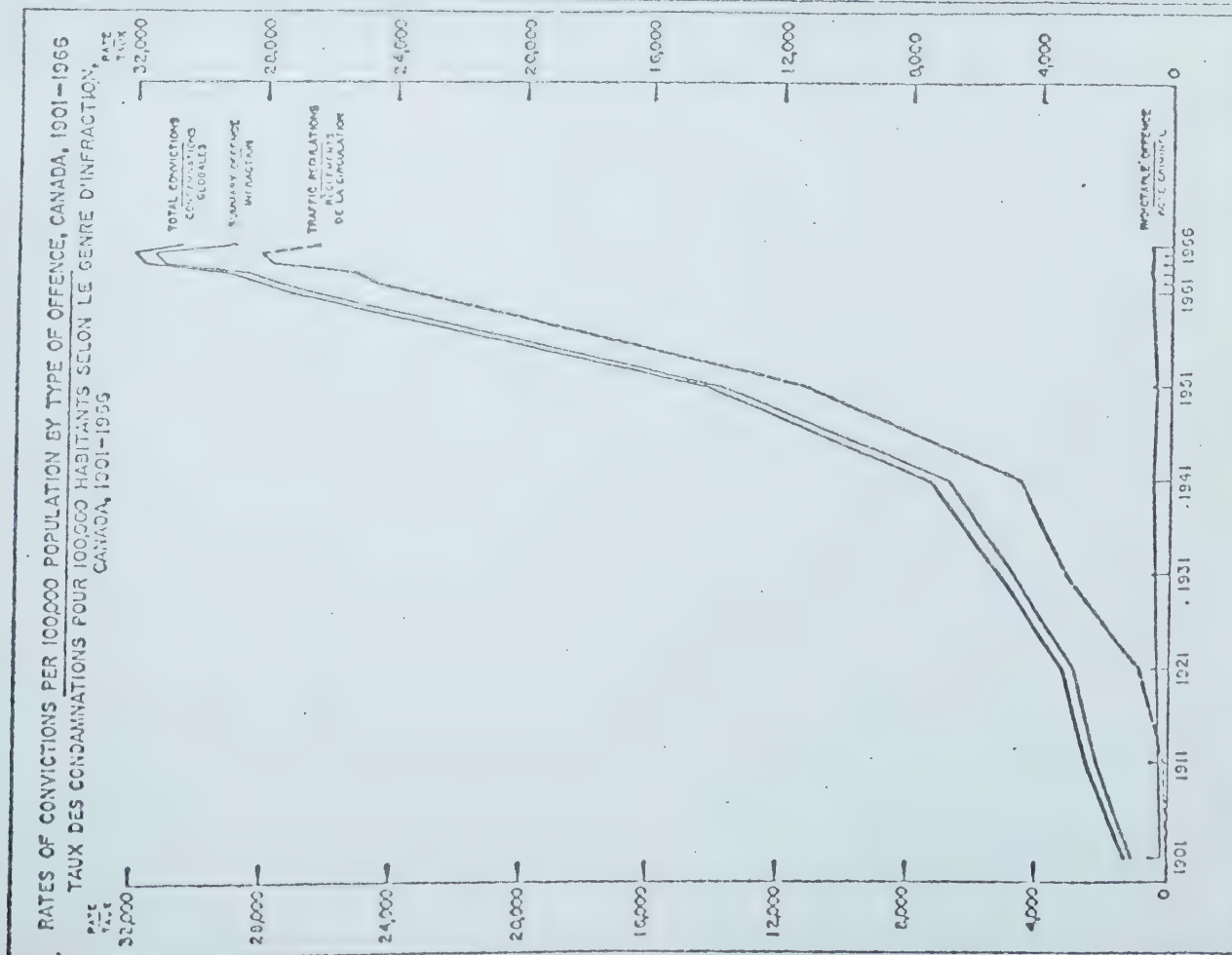




Table 5: Number of Offences and Offence Rate per 1000 Population for Alberta, 1965 to 1968

	1968	1967	1966	1965
<b>Criminal Code</b>				
Reported Offences	83,788	75,505	67,659	57,278
Offence Rate	6.50	6.05	5.58	4.80
<b>Federal Statutes</b>				
Reported Offences	3,519	3,874	5,088	5,626
Offence Rate	0.27	0.31	0.42	0.47
<b>Provincial Statutes</b>				
Reported Offences	45,140	40,562	37,248	32,427
Offence Rate	3.50	3.25	3.07	2.72
<b>Municipal By-Laws</b>				
Reported Offences	5,613	5,973	5,072	4,411
Offence Rate	0.44	0.48	0.42	0.37
<b>TOTAL OFFENCES</b>				
Reported Offences	138,060	125,914	115,067	99,742
Offence Rate	10.71	10.08	9.49	8.36

Source: D.B.S. Catalogue Number 85-205.





TABLE 6

## CONVICTIONS, BY TYPE OF OFFENCE, FOR ALBERTA: 1960 - 1967

Year	Indictable	Summary		Total
		Traffic	Total	
1960	7,135 (.06)	81,878 (.64)	119,868 (.94)	127,003 (1.00)
1961	8,004 (.05)	97,508 (.66)	139,644 (.95)	147,648 (1.00)
1962	8,257 (.05)	112,085 (.69)	155,333 (.95)	163,590 (1.00)
1963	8,868 (.05)	128,291 (.71)	172,468 (.95)	181,336 (1.00)
1964	9,323 (.04)	160,258 (.75)	206,701 (.96)	215,101 (1.00)
1965	8,095 (.04)	135,540 (.71)	182,484 (.96)	190,579 (1.00)
1966	7,746 (.04)	138,586 (.71)	192,815 (.96)	200,561 (1.00)
1967	8,516 (.05)	107,980 (.63)	163,559 (.95)	172,075 (1.00)

Source: Based upon Dominion Bureau of Statistics Catalogue 85-201.



officers, obstructing the courts' ability to deal with more serious crimes.

Detection of such offences is often regarded as degrading to the police. And it may raise legal, moral and ethical problems for the legal justice system.

The increasing number of cases before the courts has placed a severe strain on traditional methods of court administration. Law enforcement efficiency is frequently lost when the court can't deal properly with the people before it. Before drunkenness was removed as a crime and the traffic offender was enabled to plead guilty without appearing in court, many cases had to be heard and disposed of in minutes.

Other techniques have been advocated to alleviate crowding in the courts. British Columbia has removed the fine for traffic offences and now awards traffic demerit points to the offender instead. Accumulation of a certain number of demerit points within a specified time results in suspension of driving licenses.

This system is simply a method of cutting costs. It was costing the government more to collect traffic fines than the fines themselves. Through use of the demerit system collection costs ceased, magistrates have a reduced case load, and there appears to be no change in the number of traffic offences.

#### Conviction and Punishment

Information and statistics are more readily available on offences for which convictions are obtained. In dealing with court cases, the emphasis changes from the four categories of crime to two types of offences: indictable and summary. Indictable offences include the criminal code and federal statutes, while summary convictions may be found in all categories. In dealing with indictable convictions, Table 7 provides a general summary of the results of the court trial and resultant action.

From this table it can be seen that the most common punishment for persons convicted of an indictable offence is a jail sentence, followed closely by a fine. Suspended sentences rank third, with the penitentiary sentence in fourth position. It should be noted, however, that the main distinction between jail and penitentiary is the length of sentence. When incarceration is compared with other alternatives, it constitutes 48.5 per cent of the total.

Additional light is shed on the subject when the nature of the indictable offence is considered. The indictable offences and the corresponding sentences are presented in Table 8. In this table the relative parity between fines and incarceration





Summary	Male	Female	Total
Persons Charged, Results of Proceedings			
Convictions	4211	524	4735
Acquittals	325	33	358
Detention for Insanity	5	--	5
Disagreement of Jury	1	--	1
Stay of Proceedings	31	4	35
TOTAL	4573	561	5134
Sentence of Convicted Persons			
Suspended Sentence without Probation			592
Suspended Sentence with Probation			351
Fine			1581
Gaol			1865
Training School			1
Penitentiary			514
TOTAL			4735
Extra Sentence			
Lash			1
Penal Institution and Fine			97
Gaol and bound over to keep peace			10
Probation and Fine			3
Order Prohibiting Driving			10
TOTAL			121

Source: D.B.S. Catalogue Number 85-201.

Table 8: Persons Charged and Sentences of Convicted Persons by Nature of Indictable Offence for Alberta, 1967

Indictable Offence	Persons Charged	Persons Convicted	Sentence with Probation	Sentence without Probation	Fine	Incarceration
Against Persons	833	701	49	22	316	314
Against Property with Violence	755	706	112	99	15	480
Against Property without Violence	2879	2715	362	196	1041	1116
Malicious Offences against Property	121	112	18	5	35	54
Forgery and Offences Related to Currency	131	119	16	7	4	92
Other	344	321	27	11	169	114
TOTAL Criminal Code	5063	4674	584	340	1580	2170
Federal Statutes	71	61	8	11	1	41
TOTAL	5134	4735	592	351	1581	2211

Source: D.B.S. Catalogue Number 85-201.





for crimes "against persons" is a sharp distinction to disparity between fines and incarceration for crimes "against property with violence". High incarceration rates occur for crimes "against property with violence", "malicious offences against property" and "forgery and offences related to currency". Lower rates exist for crimes "against persons", "against property without violence" and "other" offences. Although the evidence isn't conclusive, an interpretation of the legal system in terms of the protestant ethic is not contradictory.

Table 9 examines the nature of response to summary offences, in contrast to Table 8, which dealt with distribution of persons within the legal justice system.

From both these tables it can be seen that incarceration is the most common form of punishment. In the case of summary convictions, incarceration is at least four times more likely to result than any other reaction, if fines are not considered. For indictable convictions, incarceration is the most predominant response except for crimes against the person and the "other" category.

Table 10 provides information regarding the disposition of convicted offences for Alberta from 1965 to 1967.

Although Table 10 shows the response to convicted offences, the number of persons involved in summary offence charges and convictions is not available in the published data. Information of a comparative nature is also unavailable for the number of offences charged.

Even with these limitations, comparisons of the ratio between "offences convicted", "persons convicted" and "persons institutionalized" (jail and penitentiary) for indictable offences between 1965 and 1967 suggests little change in this aspect of the legal justice system.

The ratio for "persons convicted" to "offences convicted" was 52, 58, and 56 per cent for the three years. The ratio of institutionalization in a jail or penitentiary to "persons convicted" was 48, 44 and 47 per cent for 1965, 1966 and 1967. Finally, the ratio of institutionalization to "offences convicted" was 25, 26 and 26 per cent for the same time interval. Thus it appears there is a fairly standard manner of processing those who become involved in the legal justice system.

Probation has become an alternative to incarceration in recent years. The use of probation has undergone some modification since its original inception, and the current trend is for greater utilization of this alternative. Probation figures are contained in Table 11.





Table 9: Convictions of Offences Punishable on Summary Convictions by  
Nature of Offence and Dispensation of Conviction for Alberta, 1967

Nature of Offence	Male	Female	Fine	Suspended with Probation	Sentence without Probation	Gaol	Other
Criminal Code	12,034	636	9,368	425	153	2624	100
Federal Statutes	5,078	503	5,017	97	8	392	67
Provincial Stat- utes	106,885	4488	104,557	60	146	5599	1012
Municipal By-Laws	29,914	1061	30,928		5	34	8
Prohibited Parking	2,829	130	2,952		1	6	
TOTAL	156,741	6818	152,822	582	313	8655	1187

Source: D.B.S. Catalogue Number 85-201.





Table 10: Disposition of Convicted Offences for Alberta, 1965 - 1967

Offences	1967			1966			1965		
	Indictable	Summary	Indictable	Summary	Indictable	Summary	Indictable	Summary	Summary
Convicted	8516	163,559	7746	192,815	8095	182,484			
Persons									
Charged	5134		4890		4526				
Convicted	4735		4508		4234				
Disposition of Convicted Persons									
Suspended without probation	592	313	568	363	187	625			
Suspended with probation	351	582	394	516	637	364			
Fine	1591	152,822	1543	186,891	1384	176,767			
Gaol	1865	8655	1733	4061	1700	3826			
Training school	1				1				
Penitentiary	345		270		323				
Other		1187		984	21	902			

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics Catalogue 85 - 201. Death



Table 11: Movement within the Probation Service for Alberta, 1967 - 1968

INDIVIDUAL INVOLVEMENT	ADULTS		JUVENILES	
	1967	1968	1967	1968
Persons on probation, April 1	1591	1644	243	292
Persons placed on probation during year	2042	1993	187	238
Total number of persons involved in probation service during year	3633	3637	430	530
Persons violating probation	202	166		
Persons successfully completing probational requirements	1850	1573	138	134
Persons on probation, March 31	1578	1837	292	396

\* The figures utilized are official figures. No explanation is provided for the disparity between the concluding 1967 and the beginning 1968 figures for adult probation.

Source: Department of the Attorney General, 1969.



From this table an increase in the number of people placed on probation can be seen, and the most significant increase is for juveniles. Juveniles on probation increased 27.7 per cent, while the number of adults placed on probation decreased by 2.4 per cent.

Institutionalization is often the ultimate method of dealing with the offender. Although incarceration may be quite functional for the offender -- in terms of providing training and treatment of mental and physical problems -- institutions tend to be a catch basin for those whose problems cannot be solved elsewhere.

Generally, the purpose of jails and penitentiaries is to carry out the sentence of the court and to attempt to return the individual offender to society as a contributing member. Disposition of Alberta's institutionalized population from 1959 to 1970 may be seen in Table 12. During this period jail population increased by 63.2 per cent and the total population in all institutions increased by 96.5 per cent.

Perhaps the most significant information to be drawn from Table 13 is the extremely rapid turnover within the institutions. This is due primarily to the short sentences given those individuals assigned to the provincial institutions. Table 14 shows the nature of these sentences, and indicates that the great majority of them are for periods of under two months.

The relative shortness of the incarceration term has important implications for the rehabilitation process. With 74 per cent of the institutional population available for less than 60 days, very little progress may be made in rehabilitation. Academic or vocational training is virtually impossible. The institution can only play the role of a "holding agency".

Once the offender has been sentenced to an institution in Alberta, precise and detailed statistics are available. The current distributions include length of sentence, age, education, country of origin, offence for which sentence was applied, race and other characteristics. These statistics are contained in the Annual Report of the Correctional Institutions of Alberta, DBS Catalogue No. 85-207.

## ALBERTA'S LEGAL SYSTEM

In the preceding section we unavoidably touched on certain aspects of the legal system, particularly penal services. In this section we are concerned primarily with law enforcement and the judicial system.







Table 12: Population in Albertan Correctional Institutions,

March 31, 1960 to March 31, 1970

Institution	Y E A R											
	1970	1969	1968	1967	1966	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959
Belmont Rehabilitation Centre	116	77	87	70								
Bowden Institution (Innisfail)	139	149	133	151	176							
Bowden Institution (Nordegg)	50	74	79	78		223	206	143	153	180	151	169
Gaols -- Prisons:												
Calgary	476	491	469	447	373	401	397	370	351	274		
Fort Saskatchewan (Male)	419	467	531	446	445							
Fort Saskatchewan (Female)	33	66	54	61	55	564	504	547	476	483	490	513
Lethbridge	120	209	223	233	169	164	230	261	182	227	227	210
Peace River	132	86	27	20	11	14						
Total Gaol Population	1180	1319	1304	1207	1053	1143	1131	1178	1009	984	717	723
Total Population	1753	1768	1603	1506	1361	1366	1337	1321	1162	1164	868	892

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 85 - 207.



Table 13: Distribution of Offenders within the Institutional System, 1969

INSTITUTION	IN CUSTODY 31/03/68	PERSONS ADMITTED	PERSONS DISCHARGED	IN CUSTODY 31/03/69
ADULT INSTITUTIONS				
Gaols				
Calgary	469	7460	7438	491
Fort Saskatchewan (Male)	531	6489	6553	467
Fort Saskatchewan (Female)	54	1085	1073	66
Lethbridge	223	3768	3782	209
Peace River	27	507	447	86
TOTAL	1304	19,309	19,293	1319
Institutions				
Belmont Rehabilitation	87	502	473	77
Bowden	133	314	298	149
Nordegg	79	233	238	74
TOTAL	299	1049	1009	300
TOTAL ADULT INSTITUTIONS	1603	20,358	20,302	1619
JUVENILE INSTITUTIONS				
Alberta Institute for Girls	82	373	391	64
Bowden	82	173	155	100
TOTAL	164	546	546	164
TOTAL ADULT AND JUVENILE	1767	20,904	20,848	1783

Source: Department of the Attorney General Reports, 1969.

Table 14: Distribution of Offenders Assigned to Adult Institutions by Length of Sentence

LENGTH OF SENTENCE	GAOLS	INSTITUTIONS	INSTITUTIONS AND GAOLS
Under 30 days	8,260	27	8,287
30 days to under 2 months	2,284	66	2,350
2 months to under 3 months	585	72	657
3 months to under 4 months	636	127	763
4 months to under 5 months	103	108	211
5 months to under 6 months	218	13	231
6 months to under 9 months	477	188	665
9 months to under 12 months	304	74	378
12 months to under 2 years	497	298	795
TOTAL	13,367	973	14,340

Source: Department of the Attorney General Reports, 1969.



## Law Enforcement

Law enforcement agencies in Alberta are made up of three types of personnel: police officers, cadets and other full-time personnel. This latter category makes up less than 15 per cent of the total police strength of the province.

During the past three years the number of police personnel has remained relatively static, in spite of a population increase. Between 1967 and 1969 there was an actual decrease of 55 in the number of police officers, and an increase in the number of "other full-time personnel".

During that time the population increased from 1,490,000 to 1,561,000, which meant a decrease in the number of police officers per 1,000 population from 1.7 to 1.7.

Provincially, the RCMP has 114 detachments with a total of 1,026 officer.

It should be emphasized that the majority of work required from the law enforcement officer is not in the area of dealing with crime, but rather with routine tasks of an administrative nature.

## Role of the Courts

The court is the central institution within the legal justice system. It is the agency around which other agencies have developed and to which these agencies are primarily responsible. Through the interpretation and practice of law the court controls the legal process.

Law enforcement agencies are limited and modified by the courts. Evaluation of the correctional system is provided by findings of the court.

There are eight different levels in the Alberta court system: unsalaried justices of the peace and magistrates; salaried magistrates; Family Courts and judges; Juvenile Courts and judges; District Courts for the various cities and personnel assigned to the courts; District Courts for the south (and north) of Alberta; Supreme Courts, Trial Division and its Justices; and Supreme Court, Appellate Division and its Justices. Some of the functions of these levels may overlap.

To each of the District Courts for the various cities is attached an agency for the Attorney General. The responsibility of this institution is to work in conjunction with the law enforcement agencies, advising them with reference to the investigation of offences, the laying of charges and applying for summonses and warrants. It is this agency's







responsibility to conduct the prosecution of all charges of indictable offences within this territory, down to trial and sentence. However, the Attorney General may appoint a special prosecutor for difficult or important cases.

### Magistrates' Role

In Alberta the magistrate system removes many cases from the higher courts. Responsibilities of the magistrate may be divided into three categories:

Offences which are arraigned before the magistrate and fall within the exclusive jurisdiction of a high court. In these cases the magistrate holds a preliminary hearing and if he finds there is enough evidence to show that the accused may be convicted, he commits the accused for trial;

Offences which fall within the magistrate's own absolute jurisdiction, in which he decides whether to try the accused or to hold a preliminary hearing and, if the evidence is sufficient, to commit the accused for trial;

Offences which fall within his consent jurisdiction, in which he offers the accused the alternative of trial by magistrate or trial by a higher court.

Thus the majority of criminal offences are removed from the attention of the higher court. In fact, within the District Courts, criminal trials constitute less than 15 per cent of the total cases tried.

For the Supreme Court, Trial Division, the relationship between criminal and civil trials has increased to the point where criminal trials are about 55 per cent of the civil trials. At the Supreme Court, Appellate Division, the number of criminal appeals heard is about five times the number of civil appeals.

Thus, within the present system, magistrates deal with the majority of criminal offences, while District Courts deal with the majority of civil actions. The Supreme Court, Trials Division, deals with 35 per cent criminal and 65 per cent civil actions, while the Supreme Court, Appellate Division, deals with about 83 per cent criminal appeals and only 17 per cent civil appeals. The distribution of cases before these courts appears in Table 15.

Working in connection with the court system is the Legal Aid system, for those individuals who cannot afford to hire a lawyer. The Legal Aid Society of Alberta is a fairly recent development. The extent of its operations during 1969 is shown in Table 16. A roster of lawyers who are willing to





Table 15: Distribution of Cases before Alberta's Court System by Location, 1969

APPELLATE DIVISION	GRANDE				
	CALGARY	DRUMHELLER	EDMONTON	FORT MACLEOD	PRAIRIE HANNA
1. Civil Appeals filed	61		82		
2. Civil Appeals heard	34		55		
3. Criminal Appeals filed	252		269		
4. Criminal Appeals heard	225		210		
BANKRUPTCY					
5. Bankruptcy hearings by Registrar	415		66		
SUBORDINATE COURT					
6. Civil Actions commenced	4796	45	6,177	50	133
7. Civil trials	408	14	617	1	13
8. Criminal trials	453	2	196	2	4
9. Chambers App. heard (Judge)	2031	9	523	3	45
10. Chambers App. heard (Master)	2017	--	275	--	--
11. Chambers App. adj. (Judge)	527	1	605	--	30
12. Chambers App. adj. (Master)	624	--	260	--	--
13. Decrees Nisi of Divorce	1618	9	1,965	14	12
DISTRICT COURT - AND SUBROGATE COURT					
14. Civil Actions commenced	5555	169	10,210	197	760
15. Civil trials	239	8	755	2	40
16. Criminal trials	33	5	73	3	1
17. Criminal Appeals heard	102	6	107	5	1
18. Chambers App. heard	1313	39	411	42	133
19. Chambers App. adj.	516	24	609	54	197
20. App. for Probate, Administration, etc.	1431	55	1,525	135	124
21. Passing of Accounts	79	1	32	2	2
22. O. P. D. Applications	152	--	--	5	6
SHERIFF'S OFFICE					
23. Writs of Execution filed	2001	49	4,020	71	253
24. Distress Warrants filed	2033	32	2,855	152	230
25. Seizures made (all kinds)	1697	26	2,178	136	221
26. Attempted Seizures	781	15	2,014	39	50
27. Services (including att. services)	2930	168	4,110	269	472
28. Total paid to Bailiffs	22,790.05	559.00	60,900.51	3,056.25	10,715.22
REVENUE AND STAFF					
29. Sheriff's Revenue paid to Department	44,269.35	1,075.59	55,609.11	1,929.60	4,233.50
30. Clerk's Revenue paid to Department	302,106.00	8,023.75	310,799.69	9,907.80	16,350.15
31. Number of persons on staff other than Judicial Officer (excluding Magistrate's Staff)	57	2	53	2	5
					1



Table 15 : Distribution of Cases before Alberta's Court System by Location, 1969 (Cont.)

APPELLATE DIVISION	LEATHERIDGE	MEDICINE HAT	PEACE RIVER	RED DEER	VEGREVILLE	WETASKAN	TOTALS
1. Civil Appeals filed							140
2. Civil Appeals heard							83
3. Criminal Appeals filed							521
4. Criminal Appeals heard							435
<b>BANKRUPTCY</b>							481
5. Bankruptcy hearings by Registrar							
<b>SUPERIOR COURT</b>							
6. Civil Actions commenced	569	220	125	471	78	98	12,783
7. Civil trials	32	15	67	19	2	7	1315
8. Criminal trials	2	8	11	22	17	8	717
9. Chambers App. heard (Judge)	47	40	10	52	8	4	2282
10. Chambers App. heard (Master)	--	--	--	--	--	--	2282
11. Chambers App. adj. (Judge)	13	30	15	9	7	--	2282
12. Chambers App. adj. (Master)	--	--	--	--	--	--	1581
13. Decrees Nisi of Divorce	200	74	32	117	--	12	504
<b>DISTRICT COURT - AND SURROGATE COURT</b>							4005
14. Civil Actions commenced	792	600	958	1050	850	1001	22,357
15. Civil trials	40	20	68	41	32	27	1252
16. Criminal trials	4	15	7	3	5	2	153
17. Criminal Appeals heard	7	1	21	10	10	13	287
18. Chambers App. heard	576	174	181	237	75	137	3341
19. Chambers App. adj.	282	342	284	113	83	35	2537
20. App. for Probate, Administration, etc.	353	233	154	402	279	435	5209
21. Passing of Accounts	9	10	3	7	--	5	158
22. O. P. D. Applications	42	11	10	93	4	12	341
<b>SHERIFF'S OFFICE</b>							
23. Writs of Execution filed	401	200	406	362	325	300	8550
24. Distress Warrants filed	310	141	292	444	171	475	7282
25. Seizures made (all kinds)	245	152	345	337	237	437	5027
26. Attempted Seizures	131	98	142	167	91	251	3745
27. Services (including att. services)	912	474	577	876	460	644	11,000
28. Total paid to Bailiffs	9,794.00	4,171.80	13,010.75	10,087.20	6,992.60	13,223.45	150,687
<b>REVENUE AND STAFF</b>							
29. Sheriff's Revenue paid to Department	6,684.00	3,652.50	7,536.80	7,339.30	3,983.90	10,310.33	147,848
30. Clerk's Revenue paid to Department	45,517.50	25,679.40	13,210.73	42,343.10	22,843.20	37,332.15	851,524
31. Number of persons on staff other than Judicial Officer (excluding Magistrate's Staff)	7	4	6	9	6	5	160

Source: Department of the Attorney General Reports, 1969







Table 16: The Operations of the Legal Aid Society of Alberta, 1969

DISTRIBUTION OF CASES	CRIMINAL	CIVIL	TOTAL
Applications	2977	1653	4630
Rejections	511	476	887
Appointments	2466	1177	3643
Dispositions			
Cases Pending	494	292	786
Convicted as Charged	1003		1003
Convicted on Reduced Charge	200		200
Charges Withdrawn	320		320
Acquittals	383		383
Appeals Dismissed	56		56
New Trials	6		6
Cases Dismissed	2		2
Other	2	90	92
Divorce Granted		631	631
Wardship, Custody, Maintenance, Separation		164	164

Source: Department of the Attorney General Reports, 1969.

Table 17: Personnel Involved in the Correctional Institutions of Alberta, 1969

ESTABLISHMENT	ALLOCATED	ACTUAL
Alberta Institute for Girls	74	63
Belmont Rehabilitation Centre	52	51
Bowden Institution	102	97
Nordegg Forestry Camp	39	29
Calgary Provincial Gaol	142	127
Fort Saskatchewan Provincial Gaol	172	160
Lethbridge Provincial Gaol	75	73
Peace River Correctional Institution	68	52
TOTAL	724	652

Source: Department of the Attorney General, Report, 1969.



cooperate with the society offer their services, and an applicant may select a lawyer of his own choosing. For some civil cases, a partial recovery of costs is possible.

Finally the personnel necessary to operate the correctional institutions in Alberta are listed in Table 17. As concurrent agencies, the probation branch involves some 107 persons for adult probation. For the juvenile section social workers play the role of probation officers, in addition to their other duties.

## CONCLUSIONS

This report has presented a brief analysis of the nature of the legal justice system in Alberta. In such a short account, many important aspects of the system have not been considered, and information regarding other aspects is not available.

The business of making and enforcing laws spills over into other areas of concern in this report. The system of legal justice touches on fundamental freedoms of the individual, the rights of self determination. It affects problems of individual well-being, or environment, of earning a living or getting an education, and indeed almost every aspect of human life.

There are, however, some conclusions that may be drawn.

In the collection, examination and study of the statistics available within the legal justice system, it appears that the greatest need is for current, comparable statistics. The available information is not current, cannot be compared, is not compatible and cannot be utilized to follow either an offender or an offence through the legal justice system.

Secondly, there are cases where the distributions of official statistics do not match the reported totals, and there is no explanation for the disparity. Although "to err is human", it is difficult to forgive error in data of such an important nature.

Until Alberta develops a data system which permits a careful monitor of legal justice statistics, the utilization of current statistics in this area will remain speculation at best.





## EMPLOYMENT AND INCOME

In 1967, the Government of Alberta declared in its White Paper on the Development of Human Resources that it subscribed to the principle that human beings are the most valuable resource of society and that, among other things:

*. . . society exists to enhance the development of free and creative human beings and should aspire toward the provision of full opportunity for every individual in every area of human endeavor.*

"Full opportunity" is an ideal. Like most ideals, it is described in very broad terms and given many meanings. As such, it is extremely difficult to devise ways to measure the degree to which it is being achieved.

The level and distribution of employment within a society provide a rough indication of the degrees to which individuals might and actually do participate in the economic affairs of their society.

The level of income in society is an indication of its overall wealth and its capacity to provide goods and services to individuals. On the other hand, the distribution of income provides an indication of the relative share of goods and services which individuals and groups within society actually receive or might purchase.

This section attempts an overview, a starting point for the analysis of the employment and income of Alberta's citizens. The question it seeks to answer is "What patterns of employment and of income distribution exist within Alberta?"

This approach leaves aside certain important considerations -- both employment and income should be thought of in terms of their effects on people. For example, because income in large part determines an individual's ability to purchase goods and services, the essence of income, of wealth and poverty, is a characteristic style of life. Such a larger, more human view of income was presented in the introductory, illustrative section on "Poverty in Alberta".

## EMPLOYMENT

Statistics on employment take as their beginning point the concept of the labor force. The size of the labor force is contingent on the whims and preferences of the members of the population who, by virtue of being of working age, may qualify for inclusion if and when they so desire.

The labor force includes both the employed and the unemployed. To be more specific, it is composed of that portion of the civilian noninstitutional population of 14 years of age and over who, during the reference week, were employed or unemployed.







Not included in the labor force are those who are: going to school; keeping house; too old or otherwise unable to work; and voluntarily idle or retired. Housewives, students and others who work part-time are classified as employed. If they are looking for work they are classified as unemployed.

The ratio of the labor force to the population of working age is referred to as the labor force participation rate.

Because people may enter or leave the labor force as they choose doesn't mean that employment is necessarily automatic. Indeed, unemployment almost always exists in an economy, and the nature and degree of unemployment is considered a key indicator of economic and social conditions in an area. Some people in the employed labor force may be released from work; some may voluntarily leave their job. Those not finding re-employment, but continuing to actively seek work, join those new entrants or re-entrants without jobs in the ranks of the unemployed. The ratio of the unemployed to the labor force is termed the rate of unemployment.

Within this framework, it is easier to understand how the size of the labor force varies often from month to month, quarter to quarter, year to year and decade to decade. The attitudes and preferences of people change; and more broadly, laws, social mores and economic conditions change.

#### Characteristics of Alberta's Labor Force: A Summary

There are two principal sources of information concerning the characteristics of the Alberta labor force. One is the 1961 Census of Canada; while these data are outdated, they can nevertheless serve as a valuable benchmark against which to analyze the present. The other is a household survey conducted by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics on a monthly basis.

The population of working age used in the estimates of Dominion Bureau of Statistics is defined to include people fourteen years of age and over. In Alberta, however, the members of the population may not qualify for the labor force until they are fifteen. The participation rates in the estimates, therefore, tend to understate true participation rates, all other things being equal.

Alberta labor force statistics were first published beginning January 1966; some of them are provided in Tables 1 to 3. By examining the year to year averages in a general fashion, the following observations may be made:

- \* The population 14 years of age and over continued to grow by greater numbers each year: this growth has ranged between 25,000 and 35,000 people per year.





TABLE 1

Population 14 Years of Age and Over and Labour Force - Alberta - By Month  
1966, 1967, 1968, 1969, 1970

Month of Year	Year					Year				
	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970
	Population 14 Years of Age and Over					Labour Force				
	(in thousands)					(in thousands)				
January	947	965	997	1031	1064	537	563	569	605	617
February	948	967	1000	1033	1066	540	566	576	612	626
March	950	970	1003	1035	1070	548	571	579	603	634
April	951	973	1006	1038	1072	555	559	587	618	640
May	952	975	1008	1041	1076	566	580	606	638	669
June	954	978	1011	1043	1078	560	582	609	633	672
July	955	982	1013	1046	1081	582	600	632	652	689
August	957	984	1017	1049	1085	581	597	630	651	680
September	958	988	1019	1052	1088	572	586	607	630	649
October	960	991	1022	1055	1091	574	573	614	634	653
November	962	993	1025	1058	1093	561	576	622	631	643
December	963	995	1027	1061	1096	568	580	613	633	629
Average	955	980	1012	1045	1080	562	578	604	628	650

Note: average for 1970 is preliminary.

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics,  
Special Table 6 (B).



TABLE 2

Male and Female Participation Rates - Alberta - By Month  
1966, 1967, 1968, 1969, 1970

Month of Year	Year					Year				
	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970
	Male Participation Rate					Female Participation Rate				
	(per cent)					(per cent)				
January	78.0	78.8	77.7	78.2	77.0	34.6	37.1	35.8	38.6	38.5
February	78.6	78.8	77.3	78.1	77.6	34.5	37.6	37.3	39.9	39.4
March	78.9	77.9	77.6	77.7	77.9	35.8	39.2	37.2	38.2	40.2
April	79.3	77.9	78.2	78.3	78.5	36.6	36.3	37.9	40.2	40.3
May	81.2	80.4	80.8	81.2	81.5	37.0	37.9	38.8	40.9	42.4
June	80.4	80.8	81.7	80.7	82.8	36.2	37.6	38.2	40.2	41.5
July	84.2	84.2	85.0	84.0	84.9	36.9	37.3	39.1	40.1	42.0
August	84.6	84.4	84.7	83.5	83.8	36.1	36.2	38.5	40.0	40.7
September	80.7	80.5	79.3	78.4	78.4	38.0	37.1	39.2	40.8	40.4
October	80.5	78.9	79.7	79.1	78.4	38.3	36.1	39.9	40.6	40.9
November	79.1	78.7	80.0	78.0	77.4	36.8	36.6	40.8	40.8	39.7
December	79.4	79.0	78.9	78.2	76.4	37.8	36.9	39.9	40.6	37.9
Average	80.2	79.9	80.0	79.6	79.5	36.7	37.1	38.5	40.1	40.3

Note: average for 1970 is preliminary.

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics,  
Special Table 6 (B).





TABLE 3

Changes in Labour Force Characteristics - Alberta - 1966, 1967, 1968, 1969, 1970

Year	Population 14 Years of Age and Over	Labour Force					Not in Labour Force
		Total	Male	Female	Employed	Un- Employed	
		(changes in thousands)					
1966	25	16	8	7	14	2	9
1967	32	26	13	13	22	4	7
1968	33	24	11	15	25	-1	8
1969	35	22	13	8	11	11	13
1970							

Statistics may not be consistent between one another due to rounding.

Changes between 1969 and 1970 are based on final 1969 data and preliminary 1970 data.

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics,  
Special Table 6 (B)



- \* The labor force continued to grow, but since 1968, by fewer numbers: this growth has ranged between 16,000 and 26,000 people per year; annual labor force averages have been between 562,000 and 650,000 people.
- \* The male participation rate has fallen since 1968 from 80.0 to 79.5 per cent. The highest male participation rate was 80.2 per cent in 1966.
- \* The female participation rate has risen each year since 1966, from 36.7 to 40.3 per cent.
- \* The general participation rate has risen each year, but since 1968 at a decreasing rate, reflecting the net effect of the above -- noted movements in the male and female rates. The preliminary 1970 participation rate is 60.2 per cent.
- \* The number employed has grown each year.
- \* The number employed in 1970 was 11,000 more people than were employed in 1969, less than half the increase experienced from 1968 to 1969, and half the increase from 1967 to 1968. The preliminary 1970 estimate of the number employed is 622,000 people.
- \* The number unemployed decreased by 1,000 people between 1968 and 1969, and showed its most significant increase between 1969 and 1970 when it grew by 11,000 people.
- \* The unemployment rate was 3 per cent or less in all years except 1970 when it averaged around 4.3 per cent over the course of the year.

Tables 4 and 5, taken from 1961 Census data, provide additional information about Alberta's labor force. Briefly, they illustrate sex, age, and rural-urban differences in labor force participation rates.

### Labor Force Flows

In the past 60 years there has been a shift in the Alberta labor force away from forestry, fishing and agriculture into the service sector. The former has decreased from 50.8 per cent of the labor force in 1911 to 17.8 per cent in 1966, while the latter has risen from 25.7 per cent to 59.2 per cent. (Table 6).

Since World War II there has been a distinct shift into the labor force and out of agriculture. This has been a period of employment growth in mining, manufacturing and construction industries.





TABLE 4

Labour Force\* Participation Rates By Age Groups - Alberta - 1961

Age Group	Distribution by Sex		
	Male & Female**	Male	Female
	Labour Force Participation Rate		
	(per cent)		
15 - 19	39.4	47.2	31.4
20 - 24	69.0	91.0	47.0
25 - 34	64.2	95.6	30.1
35 - 44	65.7	95.9	34.5
45 - 54	66.8	93.9	37.1
55 - 64	57.7	84.2	25.4
65 +	18.7	80.9	31.0
All Age Groups	57.0	80.9	31.0

\* - includes persons seeking work for the first time.

\*\* - weighted average.

Source: Census of Canada.





TABLE 5

## Rural and Urban Labour Force\* - Alberta - 1961

Rural / Urban	Distribution by Sex		
	Male & Female**	Male	Female
	Labour Force		
1. Rural	167,985	137,778	30,207
Non-Farm	62,780	49,628	13,152
2. Urban	323,502	225,243	98,259
Total (1 + 2)	491,487	363,021	128,466
	Labour Force Participation Rates		
	(per cent)		
1. Rural	54.6	80.2	22.2
Non-Farm	49.3	72.0	22.6
2. Urban	58.3	81.3	35.4
Total (1 + 2)	57.0	80.9	31.0
	Persons Looking for Work		
1. Rural	2,653	2,241	412
Non-Farm	1,797	1,536	261
2. Urban	10,983	7,934	3,049
Total (1 + 2)	13,636	10,175	3,461
	Persons Not in the Labour Force		
1. Rural	139,818	34,080	105,738
Non-Farm	64,456	19,292	45,164
2. Urban	231,315	51,719	179,596
Total	371,133	85,799	285,334

\* - includes persons seeking work for the first time.

\*\* - weighted average.

Source: Census of Canada.



TABLE 6

Numerical and Percentage Distribution of the Total Labour Force  
15 Years of Age and Over by Major Industry - Alberta  
1941, 1951, 1961

Industry	Year					
	1941		1951		1961	
	Total Labour Force					
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Agriculture	141,112	49.0	114,918	32.5	103,573	21.2
Forestry	1,163	.4	1,709	.5	2,784	.6
Fishing & Trapping	2,977	1.0	974	.3	839	.2
Mines, Quarries & Oil Wells	9,951	3.5	15,723	4.4	17,350	3.5
Manufacturing	17,355	6.0	29,015	8.2	42,217	8.6
Construction	10,372	3.6	23,641	6.7	37,360	7.6
Transportation & Communication	19,551	6.8	29,956	8.4	42,809	8.7
Public Utilities	1,046	.4	2,396	.7	4,626	.9
Trade	29,681	10.3	51,943	14.7	80,096	16.4
Finance, Insurance & Real Estate	3,970	1.4	7,957	2.2	14,695	3.0
(Non-Government Service) Community Business & Personal	42,425	14.7	50,810	14.4	93,424	19.1
(Government Service) Public Administration	6,464	2.3	22,118	6.3	38,627	7.9
Industry Unspecified	1,764	.6	2,337	.7	11,111	2.3
All Industries	287,831	100.0	353,497	100.0	489,511	100.0

Note: 1961 data exclude persons seeking work for the first time.

Source: Census of Canada - 1961.



Within the male labor force, which grew from 247,456 in 1941 to 361,961 in 1961, the most significant flows were into trade, construction, non-government servicing and manufacturing (table 7). Within the female labor force which grew from 40,000 to 127,550, the most significant flows were into non-government service and trade (Table 8).

Accompanying these industrial changes in the labor force were occupational flows and distinct shifts in the occupational framework of the labor force, the latter towards craft and production process jobs, towards senior and support positions, and out of jobs tied strictly to agriculture. For example, management positions, primarily male, represented 5.7 per cent of the total labor force in 1941, and 8.5 per cent in 1961; clerical positions, primarily female, represented 4.9 per cent of the total labor force in 1941 and 11.3 per cent in 1961.

## Unemployment

There is significant if not universal concern for the plight of the unemployed. Before corrective or preventive measures to ease or eliminate unemployment are adopted within an economy, it is necessary to identify at least in general terms the nature of unemployment and to design or choose measures based on this knowledge.

Unemployment is popularly classified into six categories, some of which tend in definition to overlap with one another. More than one type of unemployment usually exists to a degree in an economy, particularly as the geographic area and population of working age under consideration becomes larger.

1. seasonal unemployment - results from variation in the demand for, or supply of, labor due to the time of year (e.g., harvest time, students).
2. frictional unemployment - results from members of the labor force voluntarily leaving their jobs and seeking others.
3. irregular unemployment - results from members of the labor force suffering temporary layoff due to factors beyond their control (e.g., machine breakdowns).
4. structural unemployment - results from the availability of skills in the unemployed labor force which differ from the skills required in the economy, or from no demand for workers with the skill profile of the unemployed.
5. technological unemployment - results from downward shifts in demand for labor in particular industries due to capital for labor replacement, or to the need for fewer workers and a subsequent staff reduction.





TABLE 7

Numerical and Percentage Distribution of Male Labour Force  
By Major Occupational Group, Alberta  
1941, 1951, 1961

Occupation	Year					
	1941		1951		1961	
	Numerical & Percentage Distribution of Labour Force					
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Management	15,199	6.1	26,330	9.1	37,883	10.5
Professional and Technical	8,767	3.6	13,700	4.7	26,521	7.3
Clerical	7,555	3.1	12,747	4.4	19,471	5.4
Sales	7,488	3.0	11,760	4.0	19,958	5.5
Service & Recreational	8,305	3.4	17,988	6.2	28,735	7.9
Transportation and Communication	10,781	4.4	18,305	6.3	25,083	6.9
Farmers & Farm Workers	138,667	56.0	111,605	38.4	91,085	25.2
Loggers, Trappers, Hunters & Fishermen	3,927	1.6	2,298	.8	2,987	.8
Miners & Related Workers	7,540	3.0	7,469	2.6	5,291	1.5
Craftsmen, Production Process & Related Workers	28,698	11.6	50,872	17.5	78,135	21.6
Labourers	10,163	4.1	16,306	5.6	18,544	5.1
Occupation Not Stated	366	.1	1,551	.5	8,268	2.3
All Occupations	247,456	100.0	290,931	100.0	361,961	100.0

Note: (1) data between years are not strictly comparable for craftsmen, production process and related workers, and for labourers.

(2) 1961 data exclude persons seeking work for first time.

Source: Census of Canada - 1961.



TABLE 8

Numerical and Percentage Distribution of Female Labour Force  
By Major Occupation Group, Alberta  
1941, 1951, 1961

Occupation	Year					
	1941		1951		1961	
	Numerical & Percentage Distribution of Labour Force					
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Management	848	2.1	2,020	3.2	3,808	2.9
Professional and Technical	7,774	19.3	10,174	16.3	20,058	15.7
Clerical	6,659	16.5	17,614	28.2	35,846	28.1
Sales	2,899	7.2	6,736	10.8	11,671	9.2
Service & Recreational	17,242	42.7	16,907	27.0	30,320	23.8
Transportation and Communication	628	1.5	1,524	2.4	3,178	2.5
Farmers & Farm Workers	2,385	5.9	3,321	5.3	13,077	10.3
Loggers, Trappers, Hunters & Fishermen	15	-	15	-	22	-
Miners & Related Workers	-	-	-	-	-	-
Craftsmen, Production Process & Related Workers	1,773	4.4	3,305	5.3	5,314	4.2
Labourers	110	.3	465	.7	1,071	.8
Occupation Not Stated	42	.1	495	.8	3,185	2.5
All Occupations	40,375	100.0	62,566	100.0	127,550	100.0

Note: (1) data between years are not strictly comparable for craftsmen, production process and related workers, and for labourers.

(2) 1961 data exclude persons seeking work for first time.

Source: Census of Canada - 1961.



6. cyclical unemployment - results from a downswing in the level of business or economic activity, or from increases in the level of activity not large enough to absorb particularly a growing labor force.

Hard-core, long duration or chronic unemployment applies to workers who have been displaced by structural or technological changes, and cannot adjust to alternative employment. Hidden unemployment refers to people who have withdrawn from the ranks of the unemployed, but who would work again if a job became available. People in this class, housewives and students, for example, are not officially classified as unemployed, since they usually return to activities outside the labor force.

A further classification of unemployment is possible.

Inadequate demand unemployment results when the total labor supply exceeds the demand for labor. This could be due to a decrease in the level of business activity, or to the fact that the level of activity is not rising rapidly enough to absorb an increasing labor force.

Non-demand deficient unemployment results from difficulties in matching the nature of supply with the requirements of demand.

While statistics on employment for Alberta are fairly extensive, they do not permit absolute identification and a distribution of the unemployed completely into either of these rather neat classifications. Certain root causes for unemployment can be borne out by economic and manpower indicators, and some statistical information can be used to probe the nature of different segments of the unemployed. In spite of this the subject is open to a good deal of speculation and conjecture.

Table 9, drawn from the monthly DBS household survey of employment, permits several general observations.

- \* The labor force grew most rapidly in the summer, and tended to tail off at the year-end.
- \* The unemployment rate peaked in the winter months: labor force participation peaked in the summer months.
- \* The number unemployed was generally higher in winter months.
- \* On occasion (e.g., July 1967) the unemployment rate went down, but the number unemployed remained constant.
- \* On more frequent occasion (e.g., February 1970) the number employed and the number unemployed both rose.





TABLE 9

Employment and Unemployment in Labour Force - Alberta - By Month  
1966, 1967, 1968, 1969, 1970

Month of Year	Year					Year					Year				
	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970
	Employment					Unemployment					Unemployment Rate				
	(in thousands)					(in thousands)					(per cent)				
January	519	546	547	583	591	18	17	22	22	26	3.4	3.0	3.9	3.6	4.2
February	521	548	555	591	597	19	18	21	21	29	3.5	3.2	3.6	3.4	4.6
March	531	556	555	581	601	17	15	24	22	33	3.1	2.6	4.1	3.6	5.2
April	540	543	568	600	607	15	16	19	18	33	2.7	2.9	3.2	2.9	5.2
May	555	567	588	624	643	11	13	18	14	26	1.9	2.2	3.0	2.2	3.9
June	553	572	592	618	643	7	10	17	15	28	1.2	1.7	2.8	2.4	4.2
July	571	589	614	636	660	11	11	18	16	28	1.9	1.8	2.8	2.5	4.1
August	572	587	615	637	657	9	10	15	14	22	1.5	1.7	2.4	2.2	3.2
September	564	576	593	618	629	8	10	14	12	19	1.4	1.7	2.3	1.9	2.9
October	566	565	605	620	630	8	8	9	14	23	1.4	1.4	1.5	2.2	3.5
November	547	559	606	611	609	14	17	16	20	34	2.5	3.0	2.6	3.2	5.3
December	555	559	595	615	594	13	21	18	18	36	2.3	3.6	2.9	2.8	5.7
Average	550	564	586	611	622	12	14	18	17	28	2.1	2.4	3.0	2.7	4.3

Note: average for 1970 is preliminary.

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics,  
Special Table 6 (B).



- \* 1970 was in both absolute and percentage terms the highest year of unemployment between 1966 and 1970, when never less than 19,000 or than 2.9 per cent of the labor force were unemployed.

For more detailed information on the nature of people seeking work in Alberta, we again must go to the 1961 Labor Force Census of Canada Tables 10 to 13, extracted and aggregated from the 1961 Census, lead to a few general observations concerning the characteristics of people looking for work:

- \* By observing the age group distribution: the largest number (36.1%) of people seeking work were between 15 and 24, and progressively fewer were seeking work as the age group increased in years. The former is particularly true in the female group where 49.8% of the job seekers were between 15 and 24.
- \* By observing the years of schooling distribution: the largest proportion (39.5%) of persons looking for work had one, two or three years of secondary schooling: most (about 46%) of these were between 15 and 24. There were more males with five or more years elementary (38.2%) than in the one, two or three years of secondary bracket (36.3%), whereas the female group was predominantly in the latter (49.0% compared to 20.9% in the former).
- \* By observing the marital status distribution: most (53.0%) job lookers were married. Of the single males, most (about 60%) were young; of the married men, there was by ten year age group, a relatively even distribution of job lookers aged between 25 and retirement. Of the single females, most (about 70%) were again young; of the married women job lookers, almost all (over 80%) were under 44.
- \* By observing the previous occupation distribution: the largest number (25.1%) of the job lookers were craftsmen or production process employees in their last job, and almost all (about 94%) of these were male. The next largest (11.8%) group was laborers, once more predominantly (about 80%) male, and the next largest (11.3%) female. Most females seeking work were either in service and recreation positions (23.8%) or the clerical field (23.6%).
- \* By way of a general statement, 76.9 per cent of the job lookers were male, and 13.5 per cent of all job seekers were seeking work for the first time. The first lookers amounted to 10.4 per cent of the male job seekers and 26.4 per cent of the female seekers.

Of the persons 15 years of age and over and not in the labor force during the week in which the Census was taken, it is note-worthy that about 10 per cent of this group had a job in the previous year.



TABLE 10

## Persons Looking for Work\* By Age Group - Alberta - 1961

Age Group	Distribution by Sex					
	Male and Female		Male		Female	
	Persons Looking for Work					
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
15 - 19	2,812	20.6	1,715	16.9	1,097	31.7
20 - 24	2,114	15.5	1,487	14.6	627	18.1
25 - 34	2,954	21.7	2,249	22.1	705	20.4
35 - 44	2,207	16.2	1,692	16.6	515	14.9
45 - 54	1,798	13.2	1,444	14.2	354	10.2
55 - 64	1,295	9.5	1,161	11.4	134	3.9
65 and over	456	3.3	427	4.2	29	.8
Total	13,636	100.0	10,175	100.0	3,461	100.0

\* - includes persons seeking work for the first time.

Source: Census of Canada.





TABLE 11

## Persons Looking for Work\* By Years of Schooling - Alberta - 1961

Years of Schooling	Distribution by Sex					
	Male and Female		Male		Female	
	Persons Looking for Work					
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Less than 5 years						
Elementary						
15 - 24	56	.4	53	.5	3	.1
25 - 44	230	1.7	203	2.0	27	.8
45 and over	<u>552</u>	<u>4.0</u>	<u>509</u>	<u>5.0</u>	<u>43</u>	<u>1.2</u>
Sub-Total	838	6.1	765	7.5	73	2.1
5 or more years						
Elementary						
15 - 24	1,040	7.6	820	8.1	220	6.4
25 - 44	1,918	14.1	1,599	15.7	319	9.2
45 and over	<u>1,659</u>	<u>12.2</u>	<u>1,475</u>	<u>14.4</u>	<u>184</u>	<u>5.3</u>
Sub-Total	4,617	33.9	3,894	38.2	723	20.9
1, 2 or 3 years						
Secondary						
15 - 24	2,451	18.0	1,481	14.6	970	28.0
25 - 44	1,979	14.5	1,444	14.2	535	15.5
45 and over	<u>952</u>	<u>7.0</u>	<u>762</u>	<u>7.5</u>	<u>190</u>	<u>5.5</u>
Sub-Total	5,382	39.5	3,687	36.3	1,695	49.0
4 or 5 years						
Secondary						
15 - 24	1,041	7.6	613	6.0	428	12.4
25 - 44	818	6.0	527	5.2	291	8.4
45 and over	<u>295</u>	<u>2.2</u>	<u>215</u>	<u>2.1</u>	<u>80</u>	<u>2.3</u>
Sub-Total	2,154	15.8	1,355	13.3	799	23.1
Some University or University Degree	645	4.7	474	4.7	171	4.9
Total	13,636	100.0	10,175	100.0	3,461	100.0

\* - includes persons seeking work for the first time.

Source: Census of Canada.



TABLE 12

## Persons Looking For Work\* By Marital Status - Alberta - 1961

Marital Status	Distribution by Sex					
	Male and Female		Male		Female	
	Persons Looking for Work					
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Single						
15 - 19	2,672	19.6	1,697	16.7	975	28.2
20 - 24	1,308	9.6	1,099	10.8	209	6.0
25 - 34	876	6.5	793	7.8	83	2.4
35 and over	<u>1,063</u>	<u>7.8</u>	<u>969</u>	<u>9.5</u>	<u>94</u>	<u>2.7</u>
Sub-Total	5,919	43.5	4,558	44.8	1,361	39.3
Married						
15 - 24	940	6.9	404	4.0	536	15.5
25 - 34	2,033	14.9	1,434	14.1	599	17.3
35 - 44	1,664	12.2	1,238	12.1	426	12.3
45 - 54	1,336	9.8	1,076	10.6	260	7.5
55 and over	<u>1,260</u>	<u>9.2</u>	<u>1,178</u>	<u>11.6</u>	<u>82</u>	<u>2.4</u>
Sub-Total	7,233	53.0	5,330	52.4	1,903	55.0
Widowed & Divorced	484	3.5	287	2.8	197	5.7
Total	13,636	100.0	10,175	100.0	3,461	100.0

\* - includes persons seeking work for the first time.

Source: Census of Canada.



TABLE 13

Persons Looking For Work\* By Previous Occupational Category - Alberta - 1961

Occupational Category	Distribution by Sex					
	Male and Female		Male		Female	
	Persons Looking for Work					
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Managerial	316	2.3	289	2.8	27	.8
Professional and Technical	349	2.6	231	2.3	118	3.4
Clerical	1,247	9.1	431	4.2	816	23.6
Sales	733	5.4	414	4.1	319	9.2
Service & Recreation	1,542	11.3	718	7.1	824	23.8
Transportation & Communication	819	6.0	755	7.4	64	1.8
Farmers & Farm Workers	682	5.0	655	6.4	27	.9
Loggers and Related	158	1.2	158	1.5	-	
Fishermen, Trappers & Hunters	70	.5	70	.7	-	
Miners, Quarrymen & Related	355	2.6	355	3.5	-	
Craftsmen, Production Process and Related	3,417	25.1	3,223	31.7	194	5.6
Labourers	1,614	11.8	1,565	15.4	49	1.4
Occupation Not Stated	358	2.6	251	2.5	107	3.1
Persons Seeking Work For First Time	1,976	14.5	1,060	10.4	916	26.4
Total	13,636	100.0	10,175	100.0	3,461	100.0

\* - includes persons seeking work for the first time.

Source: Census of Canada.





## Underemployment

A certain proportion of the labor force is usually involuntarily employed on a "part-time" basis, or alternatively, involuntarily employed in positions which are below the standard of position they might occupy with respect to experience, skill and proven ability. Both of these situations are considered forms of underemployment.

Visible underemployment is defined as that which involves people involuntarily working part-time or for shorter than normal periods of work.

Invisible underemployment exists when a person's working time is not abnormally reduced, but when employment does not permit full use of his highest skill, when his earnings are abnormally low, or when he is employed by an establishment whose productivity is abnormally low.

People who are underemployed are included in the Labor Force Survey under the category "employed". For Canada, statistics are available for the employed labor force relating the total number of people "working less than 35 hours or not at work". This can be used to measure a degree of underemployment in Canada, but no Alberta data is available and the applicability of Canadian data to Alberta data is open to question.

Statistics on the degree of underemployment in Alberta do not appear to be readily available. This is unfortunate since unemployment, in itself, should not be considered the full extent of underutilization of the labor force. An examination of underemployment, and also of people who qualify for the labor force but who choose not to enter for one reason or another, is essential for revealing trends, utilization and composition of the labor force.

Employment Programs  
and Underemployment  
Insurance

Many government and private agencies are actively involved in programs designed to alleviate unemployment directly or indirectly and in programs to provide income maintenance to unemployed members of the labor force.

## Employment programs

Without elaborating, the following may be seen as some of the potential measures which can be applied, depending on the circumstances, to lower the level of or eliminate unemployment in the economy:

1. increasing the level of business activity through fiscal and monetary measures.
2. establishing machinery that will permit more complete knowledge of job opportunities and the profile of the unemployed, and a matching of the two.





3. changing the nature of the supply, or the profile of the unemployed, to better suit demand.
4. facilitating geographic mobility of labor.
5. reducing the work week and degree of overtime in the economy.
6. reducing the pension age.
7. encouraging innovation.
8. increasing or widening the industrial base of the economy.
9. initiating special projects which require manpower.
10. changing attitudes.
11. addressing education and training programs in disciplines designed to fit anticipated manpower requirement.

Most of these measures are not without disadvantages and consequences reaching beyond serving to potentially lower the level of unemployment in an economy. It is important to note that unemployment may increase even as the level of business activity and the capacity of the economy increases: this would result at any time that the capacity of the economy is growing at a rate below that required to absorb increases in the labor force.

Many of the programs which have been introduced to ease the burden on the unemployed or to lower the level of unemployment serve also as vehicles for learning more about the extent and nature of the unemployed.

(1) Canada Manpower is attempting to do something about the unemployment situation by counseling and referral services, the Canada Manpower Training Program, the Canada Manpower Mobility Program, the Agricultural Manpower Program and special projects such as the Student Summer Employment Program. Canada Manpower Centres have contact with a significant segment of the unemployed, particularly those who are involved in upgrading skills or seeking alternative employment. Table 14 provides an indication of the costs and number of persons affected by one of its programs.

Table 15 illustrates the volume of cases processed by Canada Manpower in the summer of 1970. During that period the largest number of clients in the categories designated were in the clerical and structural groups, although there was a marked decrease in the latter group from over 10,000 clients in May to under 6,000 in August. Clerical supply remained relatively



TABLE 14

Canada Manpower Mobility Program - Expenditure and Incumbents -  
April 1 to September 30, 1970

Region & Province	Relocation		Exploratory		Trainee Travel & Commuting		Total	
	Spent \$	Number	Spent \$	Number	Spent \$	Number	Spent \$	Number
Nfld.	132,071	189	16,605	259	51,493	1,278	200,169	1,726
P.E.I.	11,210	14	1,284	23	2,254	133	14,748	170
N.S.	96,145	117	8,927	205	47,382	2,776	152,354	3,098
N.B.	37,944	63	3,270	89	20,913	1,782	62,127	1,943
ATLANTIC	277,270	383	30,086	576	122,042	5,969	429,398	6,928
QUEBEC	894,320	1,518	83,582	1,861	37,119	2,926	1,015,021	6,305
ONTARIO	426,477	1,036	39,399	1,369	239,340	6,730	705,216	9,135
Manitoba	56,986	57	1,610	25	14,140	831	72,736	913
Sask.	151,337	181	2,785	63	15,822	1,443	169,944	1,687
Alberta	54,532	87	2,310	34	23,557	2,809	80,399	2,930
N.W.T.	495	1	-	-	9,837	131	10,332	132
PRAIRIE	263,350	326	6,705	122	63,356	5,214	333,411	5,662
B.C.	116,288	168	12,460	227	57,158	1,738	185,906	2,133
Yukon	2,476	2	687	2	1,924	21	5,087	25
PACIFIC	118,764	170	13,147	229	59,082	1,759	190,993	2,158
CANADA	1,980,181	3,433	172,919	4,157	520,939	22,598	2,674,039	30,188

Source: Canada Department of Manpower and Immigration.





TABLE 15

Registered Clients at Canada Manpower Center Offices in Alberta  
 By Major Occupation Group  
 May, June, July and August, 1970

Occupation Group	Month of 1970							
	May		June		July		August	
	Registered Clients							
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	(number)							
Professional, Technical and Managerial	2,648	933	2,301	735	1,567	606	1,455	660
Clerical	2,373	4,887	2,001	4,963	1,517	4,629	1,235	4,685
Sales	854	1,905	1,026	1,895	933	1,792	674	831
Services	1,473	2,609	1,746	2,464	1,544	2,398	1,414	2,027
Farmers, Fishermen, Forestry	1,384	129	1,229	153	1,101	167	483	16
Processing	277	123	235	106	239	92	205	86
Machine Trades	1,065	11	1,083	16	919	21	937	17
Bench Work	328	163	280	235	224	275	236	262
Structural Work	10,529	9	9,491	6	7,985	9	5,800	5

Source: Canada Department of Manpower and Immigration.



constant at around 6,000 clients, over one-half of whom were female. The largest number of registered vacancies was in sales positions, which hovered around 1,400 jobs over the period. The demand for clerical workers rose over the May to August period from 622 to 800 jobs, while the registered vacancies in farming, fishing and forestry dropped from 1,886 jobs in May to 177 in August.

(2) A prominent aspect of the labor market mechanism is the role performed by private employment agencies. In a general sense, these firms are involved in matching the supply of and demand for labor resources. They may be involved in preliminary or back-ground screening procedures of job applicants for a particular job or number of jobs for a company. They may be involved in job referral, or in permanent job placement. They may have a number of employees in their own hire who serve as a pool of labor resources to serve employers who require temporary or part-time help in peak times or on special projects.

Many groups of people (the handicapped and disabled, for example) have appointed representatives to work within the labor market to assist in discovering, or by suasion creating, job opportunities for their members. Other groups are represented in a similar fashion by social agencies in the community. Unions often provide facilities to match supply and demand.

There appears to be a dearth of cross-agency data in the general information stream relating to the nature and extent of the activities of these employment agencies, interest parties, and employee organizations in the labor market. Aside from individual groups, the associations and institutes which have been formed amongst some of these groups such as the Organization of Temporary Help might be able to furnish valuable data on different characteristics of provincial employment. Certainly there is an impact of these agencies on the level of employment, unemployment and underemployment and on the labor market transactions in the economy, but an identification of the nature and degree of this impact is not readily apparent.

Unemployment  
Insurance

Canada's Unemployment Insurance Commission is an important source of funds for the unemployed. An indication of the magnitude of the Commission's work is provided in Tables 16 and 17. The tables are self-explanatory and so are presented without comment.





TABLE 16

Claimants Reporting to Unemployment Insurance Offices and  
Number of Weeks on Claim - Alberta - By Month, 1970

Month of 1970	Number of Claimants	Number of Weeks on Claim			
		1-4	5-13	14-26	27 or more
January	28,042	13,988	9,840	2,923	1,291
February	29,595	10,553	12,076	5,177	1,789
March	30,859	10,237	10,676	7,884	2,062
April	31,985	11,776	8,793	8,777	2,639
May	23,879	9,615	7,231	5,475	1,558
June	19,386	7,209	6,455	4,218	1,504
July	20,400	8,603	5,712	4,637	1,448
August	21,107	8,355	6,189	4,466	2,097
September	17,720	6,027	3,049	3,756	4,888
October	21,517	9,029	3,741	3,694	5,053
November					
December					

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics,  
Catalogue Number 73 - 001.





TABLE 17

Benefit Payments and Beneficiaries, Unemployment  
Insurance Commission, Alberta, 1970

Month of 1970	Benefit Payments (monthly)	Estimated Number of Beneficiaries (weekly, in thousands)
January	3,192,633	22.4
February	3,127,153	21.8
March	3,564,094	22.0
April	3,540,604	21.7
May	4,006,567	27.9
June	2,022,718	12.7
July	2,098,498	13.3
August	2,220,031	15.9
September	2,131,356	12.3
October	1,897,645	13.8
November		
December		

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics  
Catalogue Number 73-001



# INCOMES OF ALBERTANS

On the average, Albertans are well off. Throughout most of the last two decades the province has had the third highest per capita personal income in Canada, behind Ontario and British Columbia.

The level of personal income has risen on the whole and in all of its components except net income received by farm operators from farm production which has varied significantly over the years. As the proportion of personal income received through agriculture has declined, yearly fluctuations in agricultural production and sales has had a decreasing impact on the provincial economy.

Part of this increase is accounted for by population growth, but there has been a steady increase in per capita income as well: \$1,607 in 1961; \$2,281 in 1966; and \$2,915 in 1969. The amount for Alberta consistently approximates the Canadian average.

But while the overall level of wealth in Alberta is relatively high, there are well documented differences among the actual incomes of groups of people -- men and women, occupational groups, urban and rural residents, and so on. The balance of this section is concerned with such patterns in the distribution of income in Alberta.

Our data are drawn from three main sources: the 1961 Census of Canada; intercensal estimates of the DBS, 1967; and taxation statistics. First, data from these sources are not strictly comparable. For example, for the Census income includes all forms of revenue; taxation data excludes all forms of non-taxable income such as capital gains and a wide range of welfare benefits. Second, the data in which we can have the most confidence, Census data, is nearly ten years out of date. Thus Census data should not be regarded as descriptive of the present situation (although the same patterns may well hold); instead they provide a valuable benchmark for future income analysis.

Table 18 shows a distribution of the non-farm male and female population 15 years of age and over by size of income in 1961. The median income of the male population was between \$3,500 and \$3,999 per annum. The male weighted average income was \$4,160. The median income of the female population was just over \$1,000; the weighted average income was \$1,664. 18 out of every 100 people 15 years of age and over, making an income in the Census year and not living on farms, were making over \$6,000 a year.

The Census divisions in which the two metropolitan areas of Alberta are located (C.D. 6 - Calgary; C.D. 11 - Edmonton) had the highest income levels for both males and females.



TABLE 18

Total Income By Size of Income For the Non-Farm  
Population 15 Years of Age and Over - Alberta - 1961

Income Group	Males	Percent	Females	Percent
Under \$500	17,957	6	45,256	25
\$500 - \$999	24,797	8	40,360	22
\$1000 - \$1499	15,919	5	19,505	11
\$1500 - \$1999	14,929	5	15,961	9
\$2000 - \$2499	18,200	6	17,211	9
\$2500 - \$2999	18,912	6	11,893	7
\$3000 - \$3499	29,683	10	11,881	7
\$3500 - \$3999	28,444	10	6,437	4
\$4000 - \$4499	27,830	9	4,059	2
\$4500 - \$4999	22,178	7	2,614	1
\$5000 - \$5999	32,128	11	2,775	2
\$6000 - \$9999	38,645	13	2,542	1
\$10,000 and over	13,087	4	674	0
Total with income	302,709	100	181,168	100
Total without income	17,662		137,931	
Average Income	\$4,160		\$1,664	

Source: Census of Canada.





The difference in male income between the highest (C.D. 6 - (4,649) and the lowest (C.D. 12 - \$2,855) ranked income divisions in the province was \$1,794.

Table 19 shows a distribution of the non-farm families in Alberta by size of total income for the Census year, 1961. The median non-farm family income was under \$5,000 in this year; the average non-farm family income was \$5,602. Less than 40 per cent of the families were making an average income, and 15 per cent were drawing over \$7,000.

Urban families on the average had a family income over \$1,600 higher than rural non-farm families. The distribution tended to be more normal in the rural non-farm group than in the urban group, but in both sets of figures, the median rate falls below the average income.

Inter-censal estimates of different income characteristics such as family income are often available through special surveys generally conducted by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics. The data in Tables 20 and 21, for example, have been extracted from the publication Income Distributions By Size in Canada - 1967. The family income data in these tables are not directly comparable to the census statistics quoted above because the 1967 data includes farm families, and the urban distributions in the census which are based on centers of 1,000 people or more, are replaced in the special report by metropolitan distributions which are based on centers with 30,000 people or more.

The data for family income and individuals with income in the 1967 report indicate family incomes in 1967 averaged \$7,289 in Alberta: the Canadian average was \$7,062. "Family" is defined as a group of individuals sharing a common dwelling unit and related by blood, marriage or adoption. The definition of income is similar to the census definition.

Average family incomes in Edmonton and Calgary were \$8,635 and \$8,633 respectively, as compared to the Canadian metropolitan city average family income of \$8,546. Fifty per cent of the families had incomes of over \$7,678 in Edmonton, over \$7,886 in Calgary and over \$7,692 in metropolitan areas of Canada.

Of all individuals with income, the average income amounted to \$4,092 in Alberta. The male average of \$5,204 was substantially higher than the female average of \$2,169. The average income of those individuals primarily dependent on wages and salaries was \$4,498, exceeding the general average of all individuals by \$406. The median income of the Alberta wage and salary dependent individuals was \$4,018 compared to a median rate of \$3,310 for all individuals.



TABLE 19

## Non-Farm Families by Size of Total Income - Alberta - 1961.

Income Group	Total Families		Rural Non-farm Families		Urban Families	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Under \$1000	10,963	5	4,806	12	6,157	3
\$1000 - \$1499	6,846	3	2,391	6	4,455	2
\$1500 - \$1999	10,140	4	3,095	7	7,045	4
\$2000 - \$2499	10,221	4	2,808	7	7,413	4
\$2500 - \$2999	11,390	5	2,863	7	8,527	4
\$3000 - \$3499	16,428	7	3,499	8	12,929	7
\$3500 - \$3999	18,677	8	3,175	8	15,502	8
\$4000 - \$4499	20,647	9	3,495	8	17,152	9
\$4500 - \$4999	19,372	8	2,950	7	16,422	8
\$5000 - \$5499	19,696	8	2,663	7	17,033	8
\$5500 - \$5999	15,057	6	1,655	4	13,402	7
\$6000 - \$6999	25,606	11	2,679	7	22,927	11
\$7000 - \$7999	17,185	7	1,702	4	15,483	8
\$8000 - \$9999	17,943	7	1,617	4	16,326	8
\$10,000 - \$14,999	13,355	5	1,308	3	12,047	6
\$15,000 and over	6,081	3	534	1	5,547	3
Total	239,607	100	41,240	100	198,367	100
Average	5,602		4,198		5,894	

Source: Census of Canada.



TABLE 20

## Family Income and Estimated Number of Families - Alberta - 1967

Family Income	Percentage Distribution	Cumulative Percentage Distribution	Estimated Number of Families
	(%)	(%)	(in thousands)
Under \$1000	2.8	2.8	9.1
\$1000 - \$1999	6.3	9.1	20.5
\$2000 - \$2999	7.2	16.3	23.3
\$3000 - \$3499	5.5	21.8	17.8
\$3500 - \$3999	2.9	24.7	9.4
\$4000 - \$4499	3.3	28.0	10.7
\$4500 - \$4999	3.6	31.6	11.7
\$5000 - \$5499	4.9	36.5	15.9
\$5500 - \$5999	6.0	42.5	19.5
\$6000 - \$6499	5.3	47.8	17.2
\$6500 - \$6999	4.7	52.5	15.2
\$7000 - \$7999	10.9	63.4	35.3
\$8000 - \$9999	16.0	79.4	51.9
\$10,000 - \$14,999	15.6	95.0	50.6
\$15,000 and over	4.9	99.9	15.9
Total	100.0	100.0	324.0

Average Income - \$7,289      Median Income - \$6,733      Sample Size - 1,639

Note: Totals may not add due to rounding

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics,  
Catalogue Number 13 - 534.





TABLE 21

Percentage Distribution of All Individuals With Income By Income Group By Sex  
Alberta - 1967

Income Group	Distribution By Sex					
	Male & Female		Male		Female	
	Percentage of Individuals					
	%	Cum. %	%	Cum. %	%	Cum. %
Under \$500	10.9	10.9	6.5	6.5	18.6	18.6
\$500 - \$999	8.2	19.1	4.5	11.0	14.7	33.3
\$1000 - \$1499	11.0	30.1	7.7	18.7	16.8	50.1
\$1500 - \$1999	6.1	36.2	5.0	23.7	8.0	58.1
\$2000 - \$2499	5.3	41.5	4.6	28.3	6.6	64.7
\$2500 - \$2999	4.7	46.2	3.7	32.0	6.2	70.9
\$3000 - \$3499	6.1	52.3	5.3	37.3	7.5	78.4
\$3500 - \$3999	5.2	57.5	4.6	41.9	6.1	84.5
\$4000 - \$4499	4.7	62.2	4.8	46.7	4.7	89.2
\$4500 - \$4999	4.5	66.7	5.5	52.2	2.9	92.1
\$5000 - \$5499	4.9	71.6	6.6	58.8	2.0	94.1
\$5500 - \$5999	4.0	75.6	5.5	64.3	1.5	95.6
\$6000 - \$6999	6.9	82.5	9.9	74.2	1.7	97.3
\$7000 - \$7999	5.7	88.2	8.3	82.5	1.2	98.5
\$8000 - \$9999	6.6	94.8	9.8	92.3	1.1	99.6
\$10,000 and over	5.1	99.9	7.7	100.0	.5	100.1
Totals	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Measure of Income	Income of Individuals					
Average	\$4,092		\$5,204		\$2,169	
Median	\$3,310		\$4,799		\$1,496	

Note: Totals may not add due to rounding.

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics,  
Catalogue Number 13 - 534.



The average income of wage and salary dependent individuals in Calgary, Edmonton and Lethbridge was 30 per cent higher than that outside of these centers.

Taxation statistics are available in the form of an annual publication of the Canada Department of National Revenue. The data in Tables 22 and 23 show average income of taxable persons by occupational classes for Alberta from 1961 to 1968, and average income reported from all income tax returns by census division for 1968. If the latter data are used to divide the province into income zones, three areas are apparent. The highest average incomes were reported in the census divisions of Calgary and Edmonton. The middle average incomes were reported in the southern, south-eastern, central (excluding Calgary) and census divisions to the east and west of Edmonton. The lowest average incomes were reported in the three northern central divisions. It is important to note that taxation records may be filed in one locale and the income reported may be earned and expended in another. The extent of this condition is unknown.

#### CONCLUDING OBSERVATION

Reliable statistics, when and where available, become a primary ingredient in formulating that which we know to be true about a particular subject, and that which is open purely to speculation or conjecture. Statistics may be seen often as key parameters to the exposition of situation, or as reference points for comment, debate and the understanding of a situation.

The information stream relating to employment, unemployment, underemployment and income in Alberta includes a myriad of statistical data, both in terms of the number of different actual or potential sources of data, and in terms of the actual or potential depth of data within a particular source. The purpose of this section was to outline and explore a number of these sources of data, and thereby provide a starting point for an overview of employment and income in the province. Emphasis was given to the structure of unemployment, and to a lesser extent, of underemployment.

This section was, therefore, not a compendium of all sources of employment and income data; nor an attempt to examine or represent all aspects of employment and income; nor an exercise geared to exhaustive interpretation and analysis of the data provided on employment and income. It was to serve primarily to introduce a number of important sources of data dealing with these subjects.





TABLE 22

Average Income of Taxable Persons, By Occupational Classes - Alberta  
1961, 1962, 1963, 1964, 1965, 1966, 1967, 1968

Occupational Class	Year							
	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968
	Average Income of Taxable Persons							
	(in dollars)							
Farmers	4,391	4,661	4,594	5,063	5,275	5,444	5,770	5,739
Fishermen	-	-	2,934	4,200	5,600	3,900	5,048	4,768
Accountants	11,293	9,362	9,347	10,948	10,599	11,355	12,735	14,727
Medical Doctors and Surgeons	18,466	18,333	19,086	21,111	22,718	24,922	27,599	32,563
Dentists	14,527	16,898	17,000	16,826	16,690	17,166	20,614	23,322
Lawyers & Notaries	14,992	15,375	19,071	17,031	17,098	18,209	19,848	22,243
Engineers and Architects	13,218	10,459	10,105	11,382	14,557	18,462	18,056	19,655
Entertainers and Artists	6,000	6,170	4,582	4,293	4,020	3,984	3,709	3,723
Nurses	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other Professional	7,840	6,192	7,010	6,461	7,658	7,144	8,012	9,579
Agricultural Enterprises	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Employees of Business	4,195	4,317	4,392	4,544	4,727	5,039	5,380	5,686
Employees of Institutions	2,949	3,012	3,037	3,146	3,329	3,514	3,693	4,068
Teachers & Professors	4,841	4,953	5,449	5,459	5,735	6,116	6,574	7,006
Federal Government Employees	4,180	4,014	4,638	4,551	4,923	5,331	5,473	6,115
Provincial Government Employees	3,914	3,981	4,092	4,191	4,385	4,808	5,101	5,415
Municipal & Smaller Government Employees	4,026	4,259	4,382	4,578	4,711	4,681	5,104	5,526
Unclassified	2,770	2,688	3,224	3,236	3,138	3,226	3,533	3,697
Salesmen	5,369	5,727	5,726	5,083	6,694	6,091	6,143	7,067
Forestry Operators	3,112	-	4,632	10,237	8,478	6,794	6,865	4,345

continued . . .





Continued . . .

Average Income of Taxable Persons, By Occupational Classes - Alberta  
1961, 1962, 1963, 1964, 1965, 1966, 1967, 1968

Occupational Class	Year							
	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968
	Average Income of Taxable Persons (in dollars)							
Manufacturers	5,950	5,560	5,627	5,374	5,353	6,402	6,151	7,223
Construction	4,688	4,897	4,756	4,886	5,178	5,887	6,162	6,262
Public Utilities	4,030	4,109	4,688	4,712	4,961	4,934	5,186	5,318
Wholesale Traders	6,167	7,501	7,714	6,741	6,961	7,660	7,347	6,926
Retail Traders	5,227	5,345	5,711	5,745	6,086	6,217	6,614	6,901
Service								
Recreation Services								
Operators	3,783	6,070	4,342	5,333	4,719	4,994	5,089	5,797
Business Services								
Operators	4,691	4,380	3,704	7,217	6,681	6,890	5,601	5,747
Other Service								
Operators	4,145	4,375	4,530	4,721	4,990	4,981	5,205	5,506
Finance								
Insurance Agencies	6,128	7,383	7,393	8,067	7,674	9,776	9,985	8,156
Real Estate	5,641	9,321	5,567	7,685	8,249	7,790	9,052	9,472
Other Finance	10,017	16,758	13,776	10,807	25,217	15,569	11,670	13,470
Other Business								
Operators	7,562	5,257	5,590	7,631	5,578	6,733	8,208	7,619
Investment Income								
Predominates	6,107	5,622	5,314	5,430	5,529	5,999	6,052	5,573
Pension Income								
Predominates	2,950	3,421	3,055	3,273	3,336	3,326	3,060	3,209
Property Owners	-	-	-	4,828	4,872	4,856	5,121	5,270
Estates	400	5,112	-	-	-	-	-	-
Unclassified	3,863	4,854	3,713	5,457	3,108	4,704	3,202	3,313
Average for All Classes	4,292	4,420	4,509	4,673	4,847	5,114	5,408	5,695

Source: Canada Department of National Revenue, Taxation,  
Taxation Statistics.



TABLE 23

Average Income Reported From All Income Tax Returns  
By Census Division - Alberta - 1968

Census Division	Average Income Per Return
	\$
Census Division 1	4,509
Census Division 2	4,524
Census Division 3	3,932
Census Division 4	4,347
Census Division 5	4,342
Census Division 6	5,279
Census Division 7	4,069
Census Division 8	4,058
Census Division 9	4,814
Census Division 10	3,691
Census Division 11	5,062
Census Division 12	3,543
Census Division 13	3,136
Census Division 14	4,620
Census Division 15	3,596
Alberta	4,773

Source: Canada Department of National Revenue, Taxation,  
Taxation Statistics.



## LEARNING AND EDUCATION

Alberta society, by and large, appears committed to improving the quality of life for all citizens. Since education provides a major vehicle for achieving this end, most Albertans actively support the extension of educational opportunity.

Yet the goals of educational institutions have been many and varied, with almost constantly shifting emphasis over the years. Today, as always, there is some debate on the emphasis in education. Some groups within society hold that the main purpose of education is to increase the capabilities of the young to contribute to the economic productivity of society and to the prestige and power of the state. Others believe the major function of our schools is to develop free and creative individuals. Still others believe that both these functions can be accommodated by our educational institutions simultaneously.

A growing number of people are taking sides in this debate and the young especially are questioning the very purpose of education. It is significant that involved consumers of the educational service, as well as detached philosophers are posing the questions.

How relevant is contemporary education? Is its major purpose to preserve the status quo, to develop the manpower requirements of the state, to propagate the values of the majority? Should not education for free men be directed toward responsible self-determination and individual happiness?

The following report does not attempt to answer these questions or to suggest what education should or should not be. What it does attempt to do is present a composite picture of the scope of educational opportunity in Alberta today, and an outline of some of the areas in which more information is needed for a complete assessment. This information is essential as a reference point for comment, debate, and understanding of the educational system.

## ASSESSING EDUCATION

In order to make a complete assessment of education in Alberta, it would be necessary to collect several types of data which are not presently available. It would also be necessary to analyze and report much of the presently available data in different ways.

Most data presently available is input data, of the type to be mentioned in this report. Very little output or performance data is collected at the provincial level as yet. However, the number of matriculants and graduates from the various institutions is recorded, as are retention and mobility rates in some institutions. These can be thought of as gross measures of output. Undoubtedly various







institutions have more specific information on performance, but this is not readily available at the provincial level.

Information on the hopes, desires, wants, aspirations and needs of the learning force is not generally available, except in a few isolated cases where data was collected primarily for research purposes. Comparative data on educational opportunity for various sub-groups of the population, such as native peoples or isolated communities, is not easy to find.

Cost-effectiveness data is also not available, except for isolated research studies. There are, however, efforts being made at all levels of the educational system to establish uniform accounts and program budgeting systems which would make it possible to collect this type of information more readily.

What then are the data which would make it possible to more accurately assess educational opportunity? Before the extent to which opportunities are being provided can be determined, the hopes, desires, wants and aspirations of the learning force must be known.

Information on the extent to which internal and external constraints are limiting the opportunities of individuals and groups to avail themselves of the educational programs they want and need, must be collected.

In addition to information about the learning force, data on the educational institutions and the programs they offer must also be collected.

Although some of this data is presently collected, most of it is not. The remainder of this section focuses on available data and is organized into four parts: (a) a description of enrolments -- the learning force; (b) a description of educational services; (c) a summary of available output data; and (d) concluding comments.

## THE LEARNING FORCE

One of the most significant aspects of educational change in Alberta in the last decade has been the phenomenal growth in the number of persons engaged in formal education.

### Grades 1 to 12

In 1969-70, 409,433 students were registered in the province's public and separate schools. Of this number, 223,827 students were at the elementary level, 101,000 at the junior high level, and 84,606 at the senior high level. Figures 1, 2, and 3 illustrate the rising enrolment, especially at the senior high school level, and the growing urban concentration.





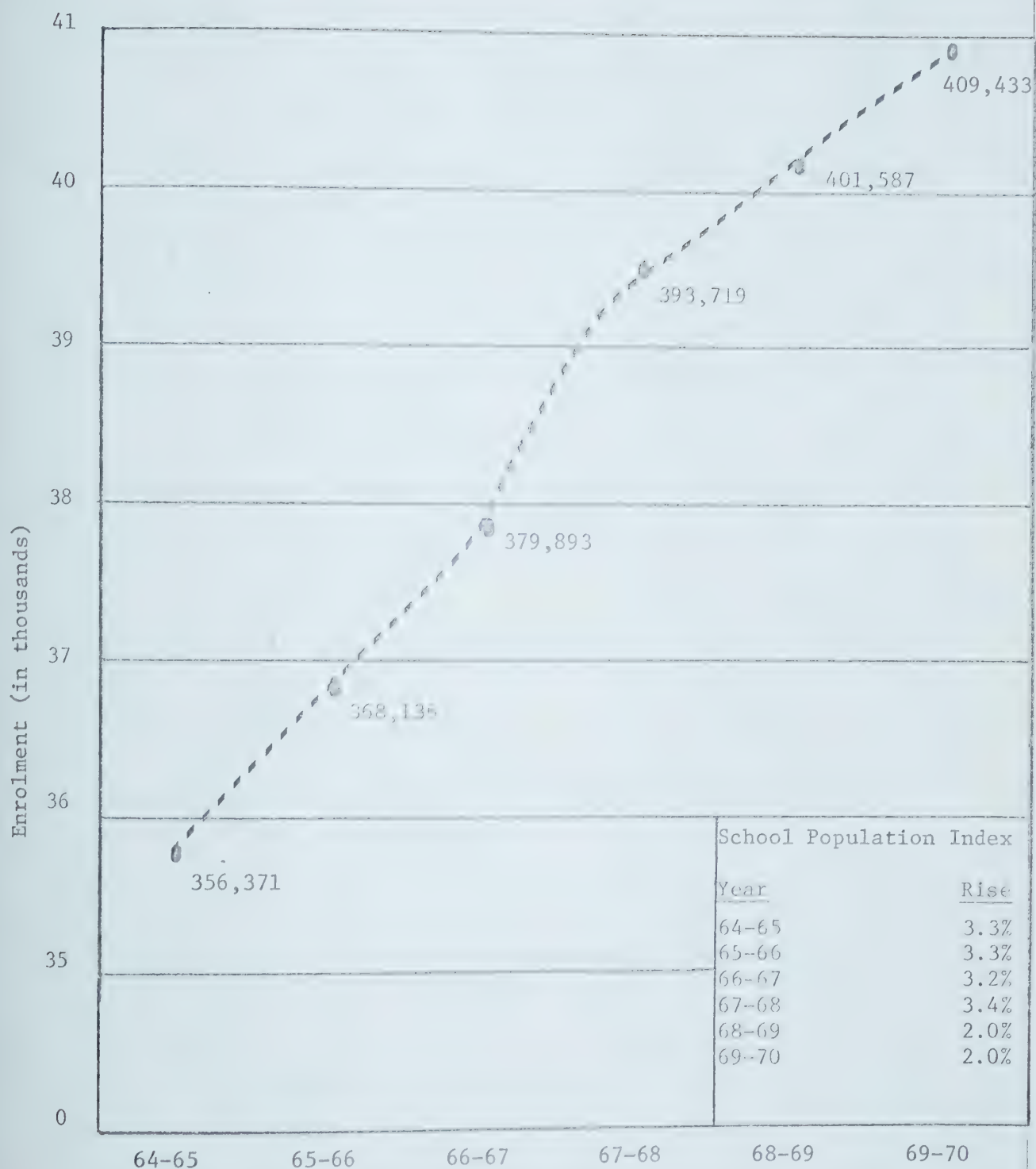


Figure 1: School Population 1964-1970  
(from Department of Education 1969 Report)



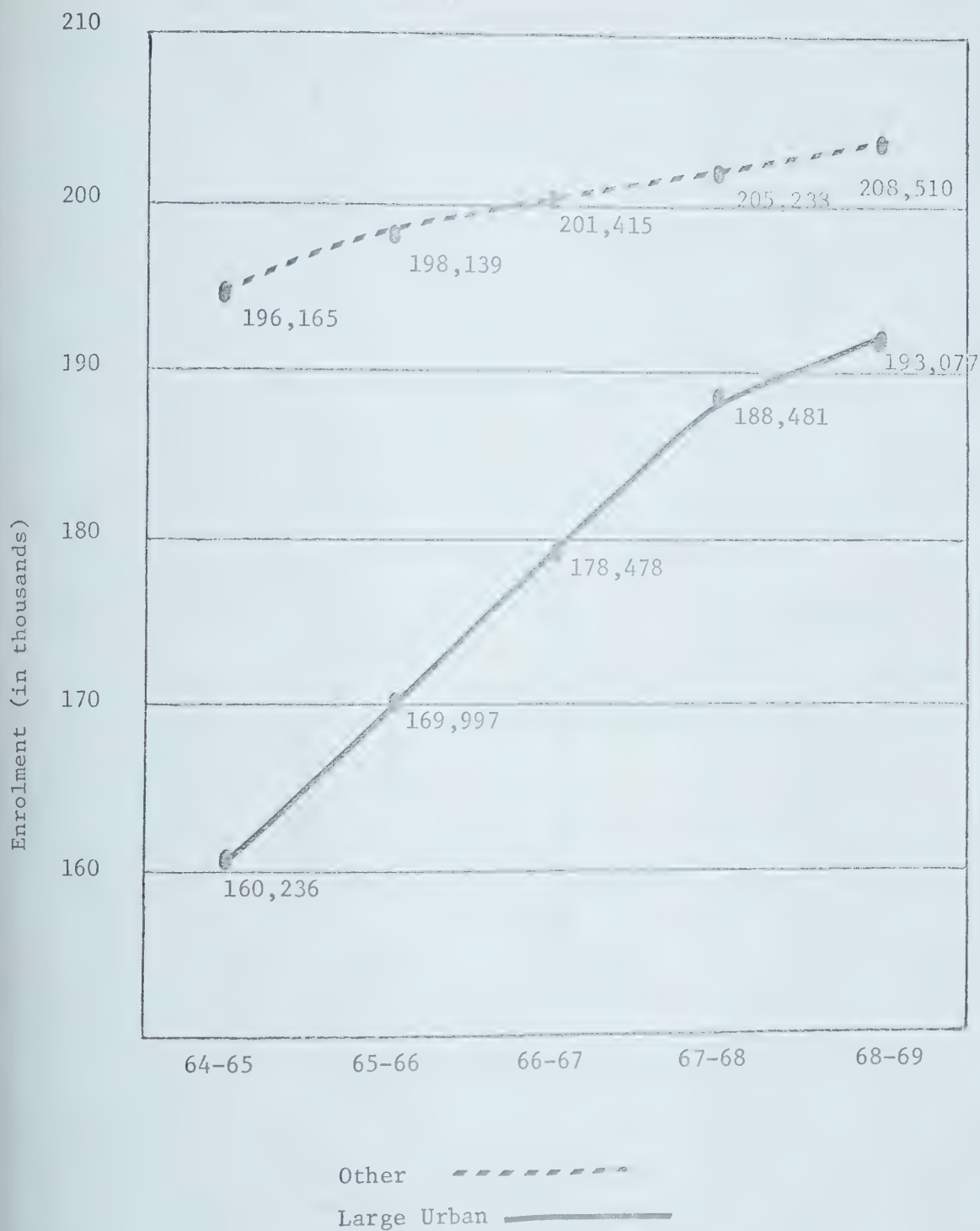


Figure 2

COMPARISON OF URBAN AND RURAL ENROLMENTS IN  
ALBERTA SCHOOLS AS OF SEPTEMBER 30, 1964-68  
(From Department of Education 1969 Report)







Figure 3

INCREASE IN ENROLMENTS 1965-1969

(From Department of Education Report 1969)



According to the Seastone projections,<sup>1</sup> enrolments will reach 432,000 by 1975. Elementary school enrolments will decrease slightly during the next five years, but secondary school enrolments will increase substantially. The projected enrolment figure for 1980 is 415,000; for 1990 it is 509,000; and for the year 2005 it is 610,000.

Participation and retention rates of pupils remain high until the end of Grade 8, when legal school-leaving age (16) begins to have a significant effect. For the year 1963-64 drop-outs constituted 4.2 per cent of the Grade 9 enrolment, 3.6 per cent of the Grade 10 enrolment, 4.9 per cent of the Grade 11 enrolment and 3.8 per cent of the original Grade 9 enrolment. Male drop-outs generally outnumbered the female.

There is some indication that the proportion of students who drop out of school has decreased since 1963. Enrolments at the Grade 10 to 12 level are increasing more rapidly than the population growth.

A study by the Department of Education indicates that of a total of 21,731 withdrawals from school in 1968, somewhat more than 1/3 (7,795) went on to further training, about 1/3 (7,246) obtained employment, and somewhat less than 1/3 (6,690) found other destinations, including marriage and unemployment.

#### Special Education

Special classes cater to the mildly retarded, the visually impaired, the hard of hearing, those with other learning difficulties (perceptual, physical, medical, emotional, neurological, psychological and unspecified), and to the exceptionally talented.

Although special classes outside of Edmonton and Calgary have increased in number over the past year, they are largely limited to providing for the mildly retarded child.

Enrolments in special classes are generally low, and available facilities and well-qualified teachers appear to fall short of necessary requirements. On the basis of a publication entitled "One Million Children", published by the Commission on Emotional and Learning Disorders in Children, it would appear that in 1970 as many as 80,000 Alberta children and youth up to the age of 19 needed special educational facilities or programs. Special classes currently provide for only a small fraction of this number.

A form of special education that is well developed and apparently successful in Alberta is that of correspondence courses. In 1968-69 these provided access to the public school curriculum for 17,480 students who were unable to attend regular day schools. During the past six years enrolment in correspondence



courses has increased by 44 per cent. High school courses account for nearly 90 per cent of the total.

## Post-Secondary Education

Enrolments at post-secondary institutions are difficult to obtain. Part of the picture is supplied by Tables 1 and 2, which summarize full-time enrolment for universities and university-level courses at colleges. The total number of full-time students participating in 1969-70 is 29,163, or 16 per cent of the 18-24 age group. See Table 2.

A more realistic enrolment figure would include enrolments for the technical institutes and agricultural colleges, the non-university level college program (Community Colleges estimate an enrolment of nearly 5,000 in 1970-71) and the part-time and special students in all of the institutions. The addition of these figures increased the total number of students served in 1969-70 substantially, to something in the order of 76,000 or upwards of 44 per cent of the 18-24 age group. This particular percentage would be underestimated to the extent that enrolments in other (chiefly private) post-secondary programs are excluded. There is evidence to suggest that the enrolments not included would be considerable. Perhaps it would be sage to conclude that in 1969-70 well over 50 per cent of the potential post-secondary population in Alberta participated either full or part-time in some form of post-secondary education.

According to the Seastone projections, which may be conservative, full-time enrolment in post-secondary institutions will exceed 85,000 by 1980; 97,000 by 1990; and 187,000 by 2005. These estimates represent participation rates of 31.5 per cent, 37.6 per cent, and 50.4 per cent respectively. (See Table 3).

Estimates include full-time and part-time enrolments for the community colleges, technical institutes and agricultural and vocational colleges; and an adjustment to account for evening, summer, correspondence, special and other part-time students at the non-university post-secondary institutions. Excluded are extension enrolments at the universities and agricultural and vocational colleges, on the assumption that many of these students would be outside the 18-24 age group.

## Other Formal Educational Activities

Education in Alberta is rapidly becoming a lifelong pursuit. A great variety of educational opportunities are offered to the public by many different agencies — commercial interests, community groups, cultural agencies such as libraries and art galleries, extension offices of school systems and post-secondary institutions, and so on.







TABLE I

UNIVERSITY-LEVEL FULL-TIME ENROLMENT IN ALBERTA<sup>1</sup>

YEAR	AT UNIVERSITIES			AT COLLEGES			UNIVERSITY LEVEL		18-24 IN ALBERTA <sup>6</sup>	UNIVERSITY LEVEL OF 18-24
	ALBERTA (1903)	CALGARY (1966)	LETHBRIDGE (1967) <sup>2</sup>	UNIVERSITY TOTALS	PUBLIC COLLEGES <sup>3</sup>	PRIVATE COLLEGES <sup>4</sup>	COLLEGE TOTALS	GRAND TOTALS <sup>5</sup>		
1957-58	4,224	419	0	4,643	25	86	111	4,754	117,000	4.1
1958-59	4,783	543	0	5,326	57	109	166	5,492	119,000	4.6
1959-60	5,205	684	0	5,889	62	74	136	5,889	122,000	4.9
1960-61	5,829	1,082	0	6,911	72	120	192	7,103	124,000	5.7
1961-62	6,602	1,443	0	8,045	130	279	409	8,454	126,000	6.7
1962-63	7,417	1,732	0	9,149	129	270	399	9,548	131,000	7.3
1963-64	8,185	2,108	0	10,293	151	336	487	10,780	136,000	7.9
1964-65	9,334	2,587	0	11,921	302	510	812	12,733	140,000	9.1
1965-66	10,274	3,268	0	13,542	546	489	1,035	14,577	145,000	10.1
1966-67	11,489	4,108	0	15,597	945	357	1,302	16,899	153,000	11.1
1967-68	13,027	4,980	638	18,645	743	365	1,108	19,753	160,000	12.3
1968-69	15,182	6,770	1,024	22,976	1,208	425	1,633	24,609	166,000	14.8
1969-70	17,354	7,962	1,261	26,577	2,104	482	2,586	29,163	174,000	16.8
1970-71										
1971-72										

## NOTES:

1. Students who qualify for full grants from the Province are counted as full-time students.
2. LETHBRIDGE was a junior college only, to the fall of 1967. Enrolment data before 1967-68 are included under public colleges. The University of Lethbridge was proclaimed January 1, 1967.
3. PUBLIC COLLEGES include Grande Prairie (1966), Lethbridge (1957), Medicine Hat (1955), Mount Royal at Calgary (1966), and Red Deer (1964).
4. PRIVATE COLLEGES predominantly affiliated with Alberta universities include Canrose Lutheran, Canadian Union (Lacombe), College St. Jean (Edmonton), Concordia (Edmonton), St. Joseph's (Edmonton), and St. Stephen's (Edmonton). Mount Royal operated as a private college to the fall of 1966.
5. Calculations do not include students at Technical Institutes or Agricultural Colleges or those taking courses not classified as university-level at colleges.
6. The 18-24 population is taken as of June 1 each year and is estimated for inter-census years.

## SOURCE:

University and College reports submitted to the Universities Commission with supplementary data from the Dominion Bureau of Statistics.



TABLE 2

ENROLMENT OF FULL-TIME STUDENTS AT UNIVERSITY-LEVEL IN ALBERTA

By type of institution:

1. Universities
2. Affiliated Junior Colleges
3. Other

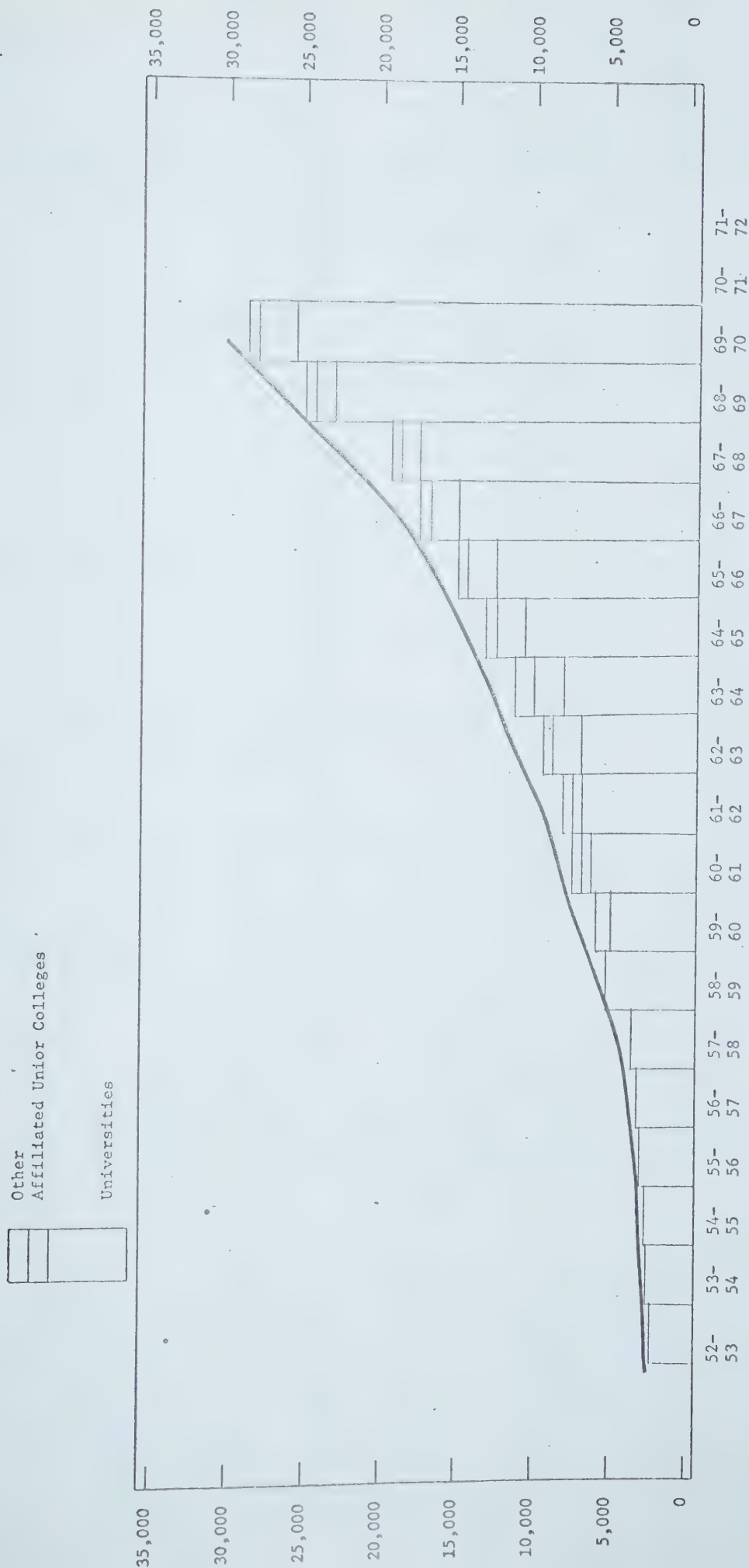




TABLE 3

ENROLMENT PROJECTIONS IN POST-SECONDARY  
INSTITUTIONS BASED ON THE SEASTONE DATA

	1980	Participation rate (%)	1990	Participation rate (%)	2005	Participation rate (%)
<u>Universities</u>						
Full-time	58,000	21.5	63,000	25.6	121,000	34.4
Part-time	31,000		32,000		61,000	
Total	89,000		95,000		182,000	
<u>Non-University</u>						
Full-time	27,600	10.0	29,600	12.0	57,000	16.0
Part-time	?		?		?	
Total	27,600		29,600		57,000	
Total Full-time	85,600	31.5	92,600	37.6	187,000	50.4



Albertans enrol in these courses in large numbers, with each years attendance breaking records set the year before. Figure 4 and Table 4, although they are based on fragmentary data, illustrate the demand for educational services of this nature and how it is changing in Alberta

## THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Kindergarten to  
Grade 12

The public and separate school systems of Alberta operated 1,326 schools in 1970, of which 540 were located in cities and 786 in rural areas. These schools range in size from one 140-teacher, multi-room senior high school to 94 one-room, one-teacher elementary-junior high schools. Twenty-four of the 31 schools with 48 or more teachers are located in Edmonton and Calgary.

Public and separate schools in Alberta offer the usual Grade 1 to 12 academic, arts, physical education, industrial arts and home economics programs. Twenty-five larger composite high schools also offer technical and vocational programs which provide training in 15 vocational areas, for some 4,500 high school students.

There is a broad variety of instructional organizations designed to improve learning skills. The most popular methods of this type include:

- \* Ability and interest grouping;
- \* Special classes for special needs;
- \* Remedial classes in basic learning skills;
- \* Modified, ungraded and continuous progress plans;
- \* Special classes for less able students, such as trades and services or pre-employment programs;
- \* Open area and team teaching;
- \* Streaming in the senior high school for matriculation, business education, vocational and general.

An increase in semestering has also taken place in the past year. Semestering provides an effective means whereby students can make up deficiencies in a short time. It also permits students to repeat courses or change programs without losing a complete year. The Department of Education reports the drop-out rate has decreased wherever semesters have been introduced.

Summer schools in high school subjects were offered during the past year by the Edmonton and Calgary Public School Boards, Mount Royal College (Calgary), Lethbridge College, and Alberta College (Edmonton). Summer schools, like semester systems, allow students to repeat courses or complete requirements without the loss of a full year.







FIGURE 4

THREE YEARS OF ENROLMENTS

(1967 through 1969)

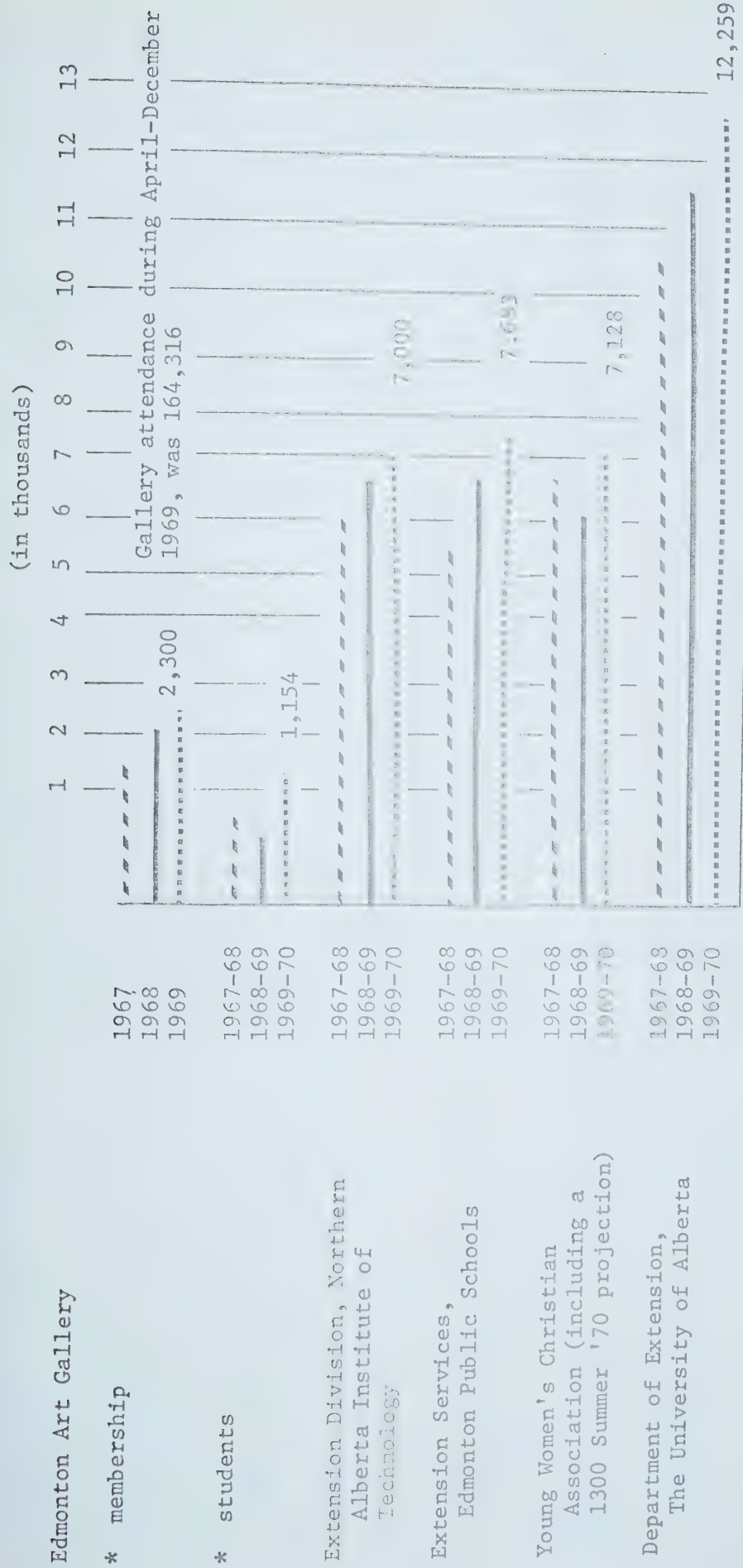




FIGURE 4 (continued)

# Edmonton Parks and Recreation

## \* programs

## \* pool attendance

## Edmonton Public Libraries

## \* adult registration

## \* programs

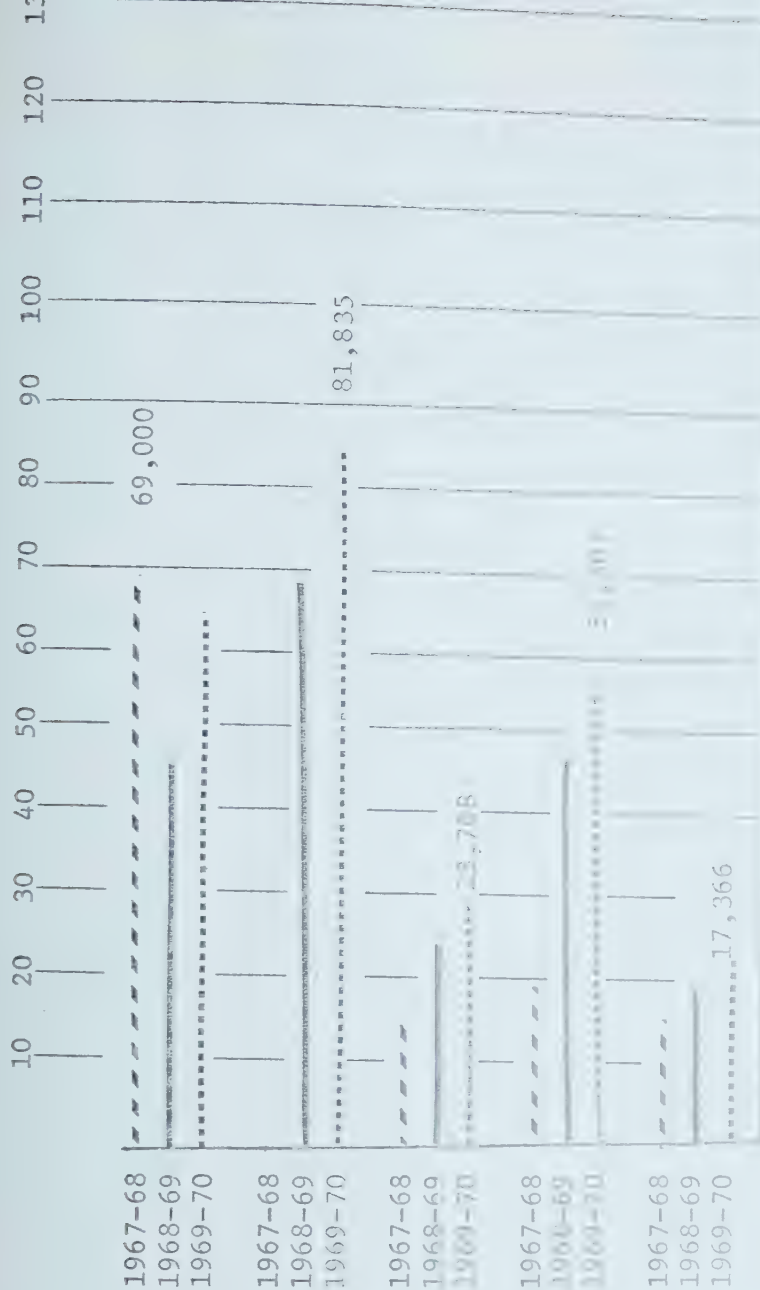
## Alberta Government Correspondence School Branch - senior high students only

The proportion of male adults and Edmontonians 15 and over included.

## Edmonton Federation of Community Leagues

## CONCLUSIONS

1. The trend of enrolments in Edmonton's continuing education and recreation is upward.
2. A goodly number of Edmontonians are involved in the programs and facilities of the agencies comprising the Edmonton Association of Continuing Education and Recreation -- some 277,000 of all ages, of which 74,000 are adults.



The adult and non-athletic programming is done largely by or in cooperation with the Edmonton Parks and Recreation Department. Community League athletic activities were participated in by 23,000 young people during 1969-70. Memberships totalled approximately one-third of Edmonton's population.



TABLE 5

## AGENCIES PROVIDING NON-CREDIT PROGRAMS

AGENCY	NO. OF COURSES		ENROLLMENTS		CURRENT EXPENDITURES		REVENUE FROM FEES		VALUE OF CAPITAL	
	1960	1970	1960	1970	1960	1970	1960	1970	1960	1970
Lethbridge Junior College Continuing Education	14	150	1,210	2,227	\$ 8,500	\$ 40,000 (1969)	\$ 10,000	\$ 35,000 (1969)	\$ rented	\$ 8,000,000
Edmonton Public School Board	62	243	1,000	5,697						
Calgary Public School Board	70 (1964)	323 (1969)	1,400 (1964)	15,262 (1969)	\$ 63,000 (1964)	422,000 (1969)	4,200 (1964)	257,000 (1969)		
U. of A. Extension *	255	332	12,666	11,685	297,000	1,148,000	161,000	665,000		
U. of C. Continuing Education*	50	336		7,041		536,800		308,000		
Department of Indian Affairs	6	30	72	2,246	1,000	223,000	NIL	NIL		
Farmers' Union & Co-op Dev. Association	15	11	300	8,782	20,000	50,000	-	10,000	1,800	Goldeye 203,000
Y.M.C.A. Calgary (excl. Phys.Ed.)		1,522	2,797	207,600	446,000					
Edmonton Parks & Recreation Expressive Arts Section		56,964	94,207							

\* University of Calgary, Division of Continuing Education  
became independent from the University of Alberta in 1965.

SOURCE: M.H. Roberts, Department of Extension, University of Alberta





## Special education

Program modification and instructional reorganization, designed to better serve the individual needs of students, are made by many school systems. In addition, several larger schools operate special classes for the handicapped minority.

The province operates a school for the deaf, located at Edmonton. Assistance is given to parents in the form of a grant for transportation to and from school. The school also provides residential accommodation for students whose homes are scattered throughout the province. It operates for a full 10-month academic year, with nineteen classes of students ranging in age from five to eighteen. Equivalent educational opportunities for the blind are available at schools located in British Columbia and Ontario.

Severely retarded children attend schools operated by local associations for the mentally retarded. Three new schools for the mentally retarded were built last year at Sherwood Park, Wetaskiwin and St. Paul, with department assistance for capital costs. In January 1969 the Calgary Public School System absorbed two schools previously operated by the Calgary Association for the Mentally Retarded. This marked the first time that a school board in Alberta took direct responsibility for the education of the trainable mentally retarded child.

## School broadcast services

Further efforts to extend the educational opportunities of Alberta youth are evident in the school broadcast services provided by the Department of Education. Curriculum-based radio and television programs are produced and broadcast daily during the school year, primarily through arrangements with the British Broadcasting Corporation. The Canada Broadcasting Corporation and private networks also provide some excellent educational programs of their own, for example, SESAME STREET.

Several pilot programs in educational television are being undertaken in Alberta.

\* Calgary and Region Educational Television (CARET), produces for and broadcasts to 24 Calgary elementary and junior high schools.

\* The Metropolitan Edmonton Educational Television Association (MEETA), which operated Canada's first community ETV station, transmits 40 hours of programming per week to a potential audience of 500,000.

\* County of Mountainview Educational Television (COMET), a county project which is subsidized by the Department of Education, broadcasts regularly to seven schools within the county.





\* The Southern Alberta Educational Television Association (SAETVA) is an association of 24 educational authorities in Southern Alberta which circulates video-tape packages among its various schools.

#### Kindergartens

In 1970 there were 232 approved private kindergartens operating in the province. These were distributed throughout Alberta as follows: Edmonton 62; Calgary 91; other cities 28; rural areas 51.

Kindergartens are not supported financially by the provincial government except for two pilot projects in Edmonton and Calgary. However, they are inspected regularly by provincially appointed superintendents of schools.

Pre-school and kindergarten programs are available to probably less than four per cent of Alberta children between the ages of three and five. As in the case of special classes, rural areas are generally less able to provide pre-school programs.

#### Teachers

In 1969-70 Alberta's 1,326 public and separate schools were staffed by 21,493 certified teachers including administrators, counsellors, librarians, school psychologists, school social workers, special therapists, instructional consultants and other ancillary personnel. By 1969 more than 50 per cent of the teaching force had completed four or more years of university education, up from 25 per cent a decade earlier.

#### Costs

To educate these numbers cost \$726 per student in 1969. Figure 5 details the rising total expenditure of school boards since 1961. Figure 6 details the per pupil cost since 1953. Seastone predicts that by 1980 the per pupil cost of education will increase to at least \$1,300.

#### Post-Secondary Institutions

Extensions of the public school system beyond the secondary level include: two institutions of technology under the jurisdiction of the Department of Education; three agricultural and vocational colleges under the jurisdiction of the Department of Agriculture; five community colleges under the advisory jurisdiction of the Colleges Commission; six private junior colleges; five vocational training centres under the Federal Department of Manpower; three health technology schools under the Department of Health; one forestry school under the Department of Lands and Forests; police training academies under various urban jurisdictions; prison schools and training programs under the Attorney General's Department; and three universities under the advisory jurisdiction of the Universities Commission. Figure 7 shows the geographic location of the major institutions.





O	Other Expenditures (Tuition Agreements, Auxiliary Services, Cafeterias, etc.)
C	Conveyance & Maintenance of Pupils
D	Debt Charges & Contributions
P	Plant Operation & Maintenance
I	Instruction (Salaries & Aids)
A	Administration

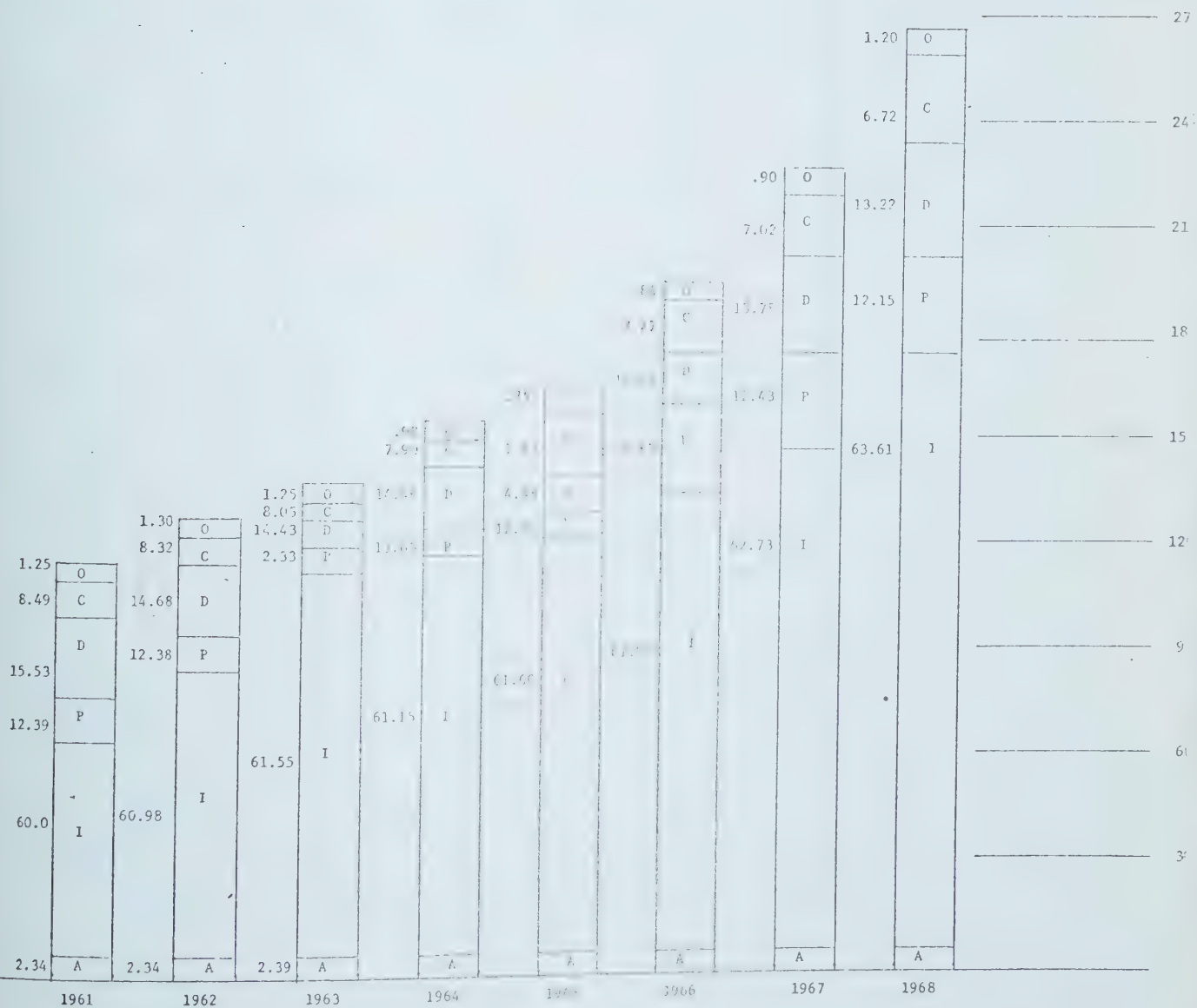


FIGURE 5  
EXPENDITURES OF SCHOOL BOARDS 1961-1968  
(From Department of Education 1969 Report)



Per Pupil Cost in Dollars

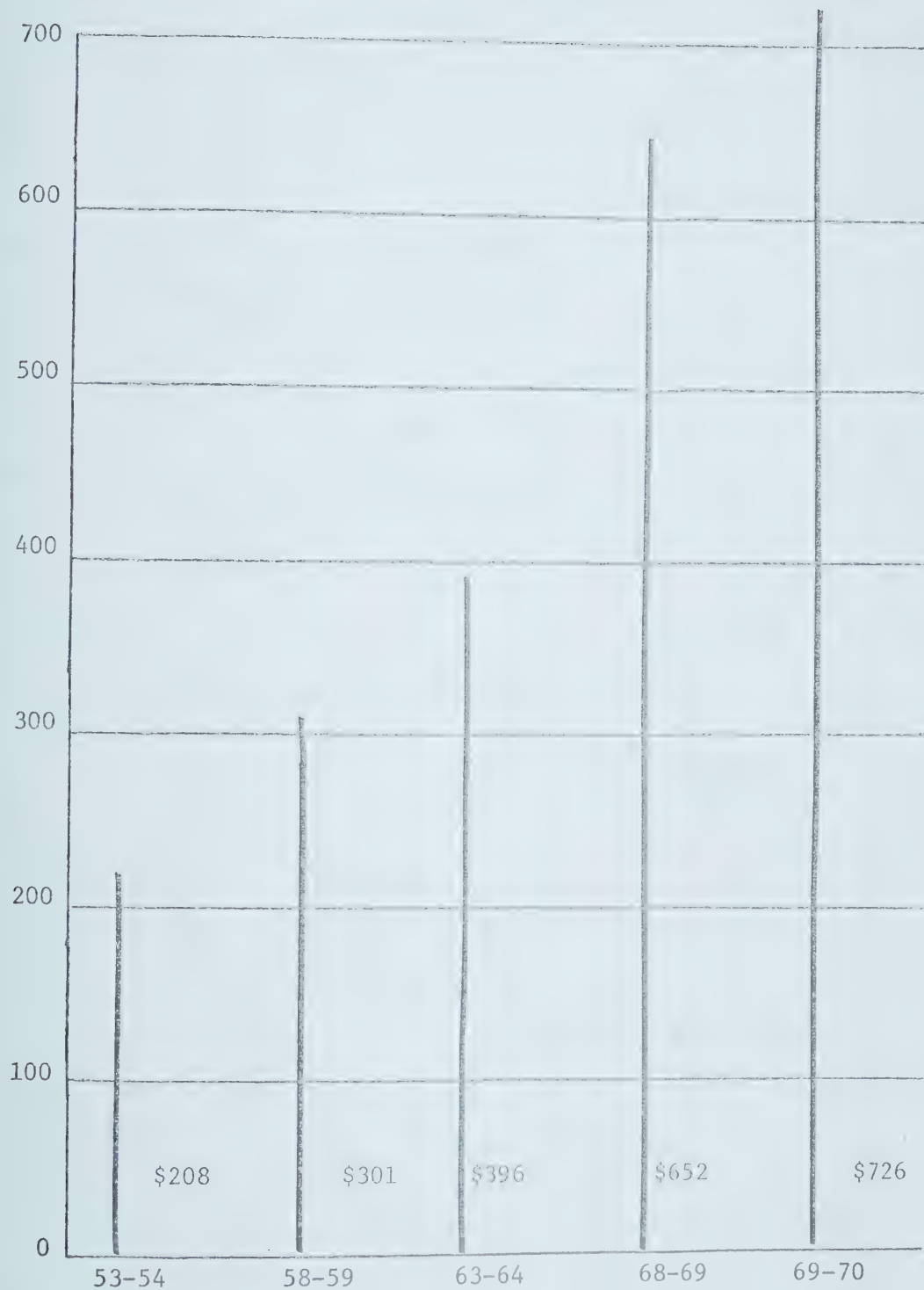


FIGURE 6

PER PUPIL COSTS 1953-1969

(From Department of Education 1969 Report)





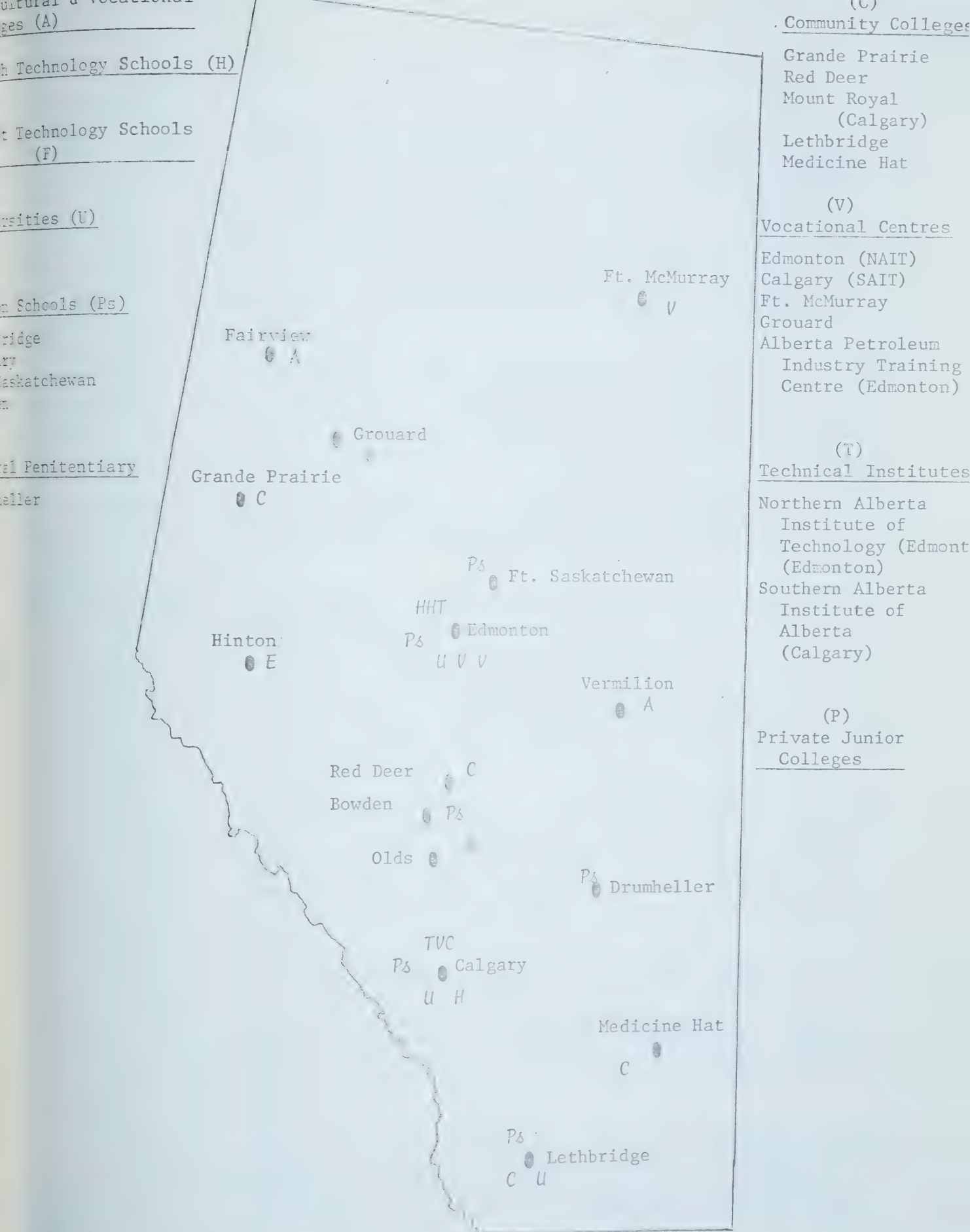


FIGURE 7: MAJOR POST-SECONDARY EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN ALBERTA



Also included, as available to Albertans, but not necessarily in Alberta, would be the Canadian Forces training schools throughout the country, and numerous private schools and organizations, including trade schools, which provide educational opportunities. For example, an Association of Continuing Education, consisting of 12 public and private educational and recreational organizations in the Edmonton area, provides hundreds of courses varying in length in fields concerning practically all facets of human concern and interest.

Excluding the universities and the Canadian Forces training schools, the publicly-supported post-secondary institutions of the province offer different programs (comprising thousands of courses) under nine broad categories: agriculture, arts and crafts, business and administration, communication, health and social welfare, home economics, industrial and technical, university transfer and "miscellaneous". The institutes of technology provide a very large apprenticeship program under the industrial and technical category.

#### University programs

The universities offer a comparable range of programs, under the following faculties and schools: agriculture, arts, business administration and commerce, dental hygiene, dentistry, education, engineering, environmental design, fine arts, graduate studies, household economics, law, library science, medical lab science, medicine, music, nursing, pharmacy, physical education, rehabilitation medicine, science and social work.

In addition to regular day school programs, the universities of Alberta provide for continuing education through evening classes, summer sessions and extension programs. Evening credit programs are for those who have had some university education and who are working towards a diploma or degree, but for some reason are unable to attend classes during the day.

Although the summer session was originally designed to accommodate teachers who wish to further their education, more and more non-teachers are now attending. Many full-time university students, for example, attend summer sessions to make up courses, raise their academic average, or complete the requirements for their degree in a shorter period of time.

Extension courses generally are adult and community oriented. Since they do not carry university credit, they have no admission requirements and no examinations are conducted. The aim of such courses is to extend the number and variety





of learning opportunities for the whole community. The broad scope of courses offered provides for many special interest areas, as is evident from a selection of course titles: Decision Analysis, Computing Science, the Sociology of the Family, Interior Design, Wills and Estate Planning, Income Tax and Community Leadership.

Unfortunately, most of those who currently register for extension courses are members of the middle and upper socio-economic classes who have had some university experience. People who have never attended a university are sometimes fearful of university settings. Innovative efforts are now being made, however, to overcome this public fear and thereby serve a wider segment of the population. The University of Calgary, for example, presents a series of weekly, 40-minute lunch time lectures which serve to informally introduce the university and its community services to the public. These lectures deal with a wide variety of controversial and general interest topics. They are held in a downtown location and are open to the public free of charge.

#### Community education programs

Several community education programs are sponsored by various other jurisdictions, including the community colleges and the public school systems. Such programs provide training of a recreational, cultural, practical and personal nature in a broad spectrum of areas, such as hunting, cycling, safety, first-aid, swimming, preventative health education, alcoholism and drug abuse, guidance and debtors assistance.

The College Commission is planning to detail all public and private non-university post-secondary programs and services, including those for adults, in its 1971 study entitled PROGRAM SERVICES INVENTORY.

Most post-secondary institutions place certain restrictions on participation in their programs. These restrictions generally are academic in nature, marks and courses completed being the major criteria on which admittance is based. Although these restrictions have been fairly rigidly applied in the past, some post-secondary institutions are beginning to admit a limited number of students on the basis of maturity and potential to achieve. Such students often face a screening test of some sort which attempts to ascertain their potential for success. If successful, candidates are then admitted as probationary students.

The University of Alberta and the University of Calgary, for example, admit mature non-matriculated students to various programs. The numbers of students admitted to the universities on this basis was seven in 1965, eight in 1966, 178 in 1967, and 324 in 1968. Follow-up studies indicate that these students are highly motivated and generally succeed as well as younger matriculated students.





## Staff

Data on professional staff for post-secondary institutions is difficult to assemble. A number of complexities militate against accuracy, including multiple jurisdictions; differing definitions of "permanent", "full-time", "part-time"; differing lengths of terms or sessions and hence their contracts; the multiplicity of professional qualifications; the summer, evening or extension components. However, an attempt has been made to estimate gross data for the major institutions in Table 6.

## Financial assistance

Students in post-secondary institutions receive financial assistance of various types. The Students Assistance Board of the Department of Education provided the following summary:

Financial assistance to students is of three main kinds: awards to students in the form of grants, scholarships, prizes, bursaries and fellowships from the provincial government; loans to students under Canada Student Loans, and loans to students under Province of Alberta Loans.

Assistance is available for students from high school through post-secondary study in university. Most of the funds go to post-secondary students. Figure 8 shows the remarkable growth in number of students receiving assistance. In four years, 1966 to 1970, the number receiving assistance had risen by 13,000, an amazing 222 per cent.

The rapid growth of financial assistance is further demonstrated by the fact that in 1970 the number of students receiving aid rose by 19 per cent over the previous year. Figure 9 shows the dramatic increase in amounts of money awarded or loaned to students through Students' Assistance. In 1966 the total amount processed was \$5,758,517.33. By 1970 this had increased fourfold to \$20,165,229.29.

Alberta students have had an enviable record in repaying their student loans. In the past five years a total of \$24,418.59 in loans has been written off. This represents only .0045 per cent of the total amount in loans awarded. In addition, about 1,843 loans were in arrears.

To the total assistance provided by the Students' Assistance Board (\$14.1 million in 1968-69) should be added \$5.7 million provided out of operating funds of the universities, chiefly to graduate teaching and research assistants for services rendered. In addition, other scholarships, awards, bursaries, and grants are provided out of special university trust funds. These are not large in aggregate amount, but are meaningful to the individual who receives help in this manner.





INSTITUTION	FULL-TIME PROF. STAFF "PERMANENT" & "TEMPORARY"	PART-TIME PROF. STAFF INCL. STUDENT-ASSIST.
Agricultural Colleges	70	} 70
Community Colleges	260	
Institutes of Technology	870	
Universities	2,300	3,350
Totals	3,500	3,420

TABLE 6

PROFESSIONAL STAFF OF POST-SECONDARY INSTITUTIONS

ON CAMPUS ON OR ABOUT DECEMBER 1, 1970



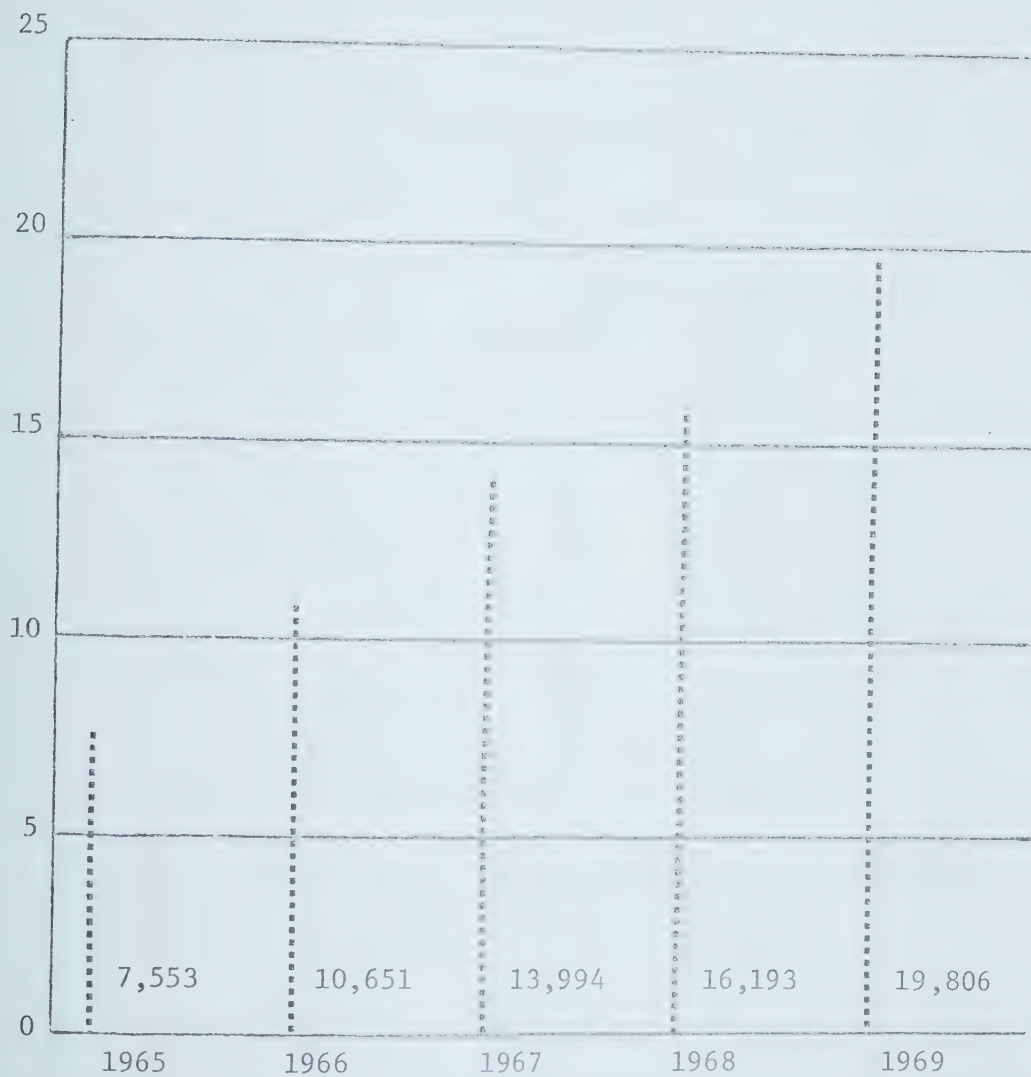


FIGURE 8

NUMBER OF STUDENTS RECEIVING FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE 1965-69  
(From Department of Education 1969 Report)



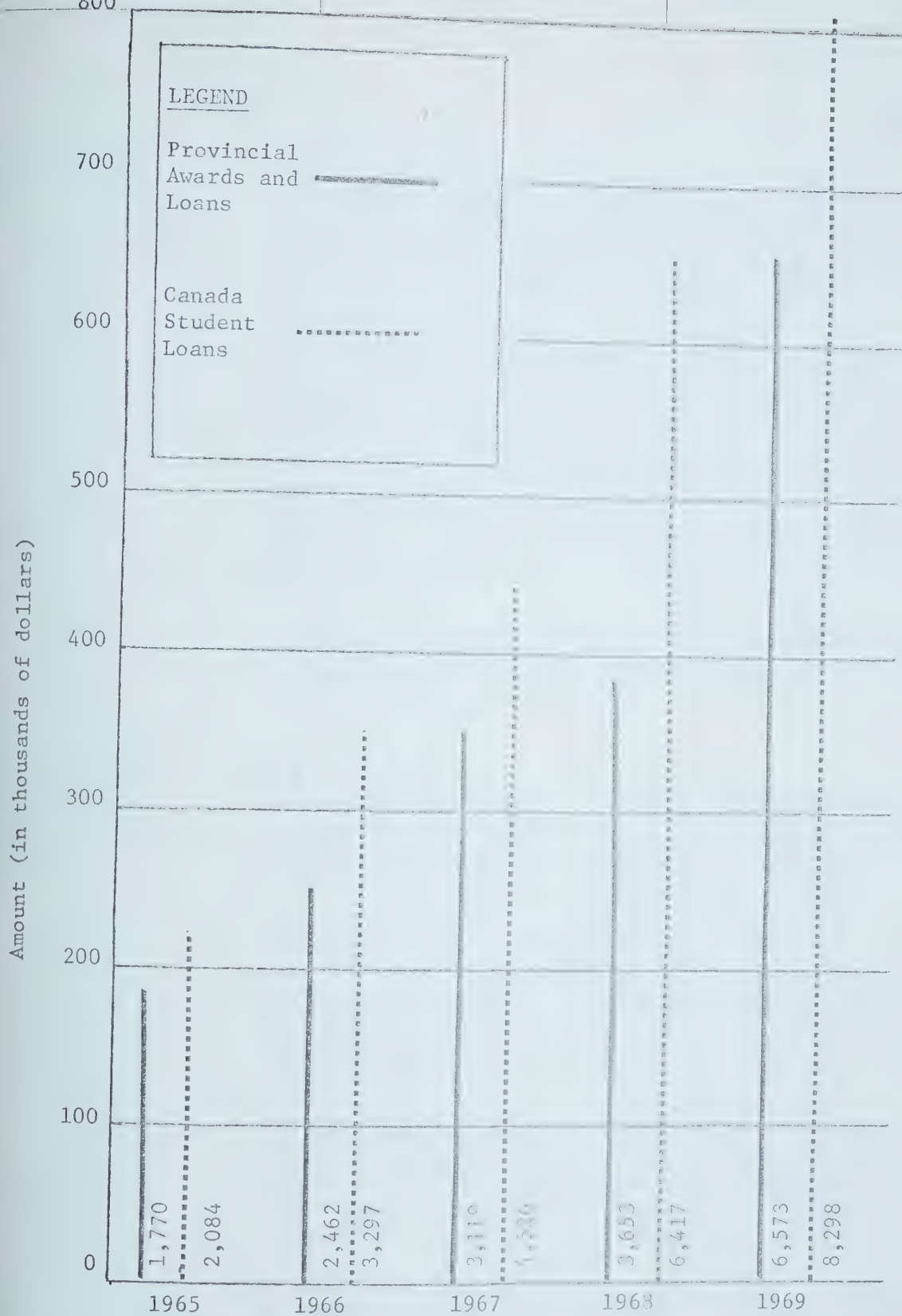


FIGURE 9

AMOUNT OF MONEY EXPENDED ON STUDENT ASSISTANCE 1965-1969

(From Department of Education 1969 Report)





## University costs

In 1968-69 operating expenditures for universities amounted to about \$2,800 per full-time student, which includes expenditures designed to accommodate part-time students. In addition, capital expenditures for universities have averaged about \$35 million per year during the past five years.

According to the Seastone projections, operating expenditures per full-time student will be at least \$5,600 per year by 1980 and capital expenditures are expected to be at least \$72 million per year. Seastone's cost estimates for post-secondary, non-university students are based on the assumption that it costs the province about half as much for a non-university student as it does for a university student. Therefore, it is estimated that by 1980 it will cost at least \$2,800 per student. The cost for 1968-69 was about \$1,700 per student for community college students.

By 1980, total post-secondary costs for public community colleges, universities and technical institutes are estimated to be between \$510 million and \$865 million. In 1967-70 total costs were \$154 million.

THE OUTPUTS OF  
EDUCATION: A  
SUMMARY OF AVAILABLE  
MEASURES

Most available educational statistics are of the "input" variety. Output data is relatively scarce. Numbers of graduates or "completers" of formal programs in particular institutions are sometimes available, but measures of achievement for specific skills are almost non-existent.

In 1969-70, 18,300 students received high school diplomas and 7,787 received matriculation standing. In 1968-69 fully 94.6 per cent of the corresponding Grade 12 classes (enrolled 11 years previously) graduated; and in 1967-68, 27.8 per cent of the corresponding Grade 12 class enrolled in university or community colleges.

Another commonly-used measure of educational output of our schools is the educational attainment of the labor force. A Dominion Bureau of Statistics study concludes that the educational level of the labor force in Canada is steadily increasing. Statistics for Alberta are not provided separately.

In 1965, for example, 37.3 per cent of males and 40.9 per cent of females in the 20-24 age group of the labor force had completed high school. This compares with only 21.2 per cent of the males and 22 per cent of the females in the 45-64 age group who had completed high school.

In 1960, 20.3 per cent of the labor force (age 14 and over) had completed high school. However, by 1965 this percentage had risen to 23.2 per cent. The report also presents data to show that the educational level of the labor force in 1965 was higher than it was for the total population within the same age groups.





The report goes on to suggest that "the higher the level of education a person has achieved, the more likely it is the person will be in the labor force. This is definitely the case for females." Other statistics confirm that workers with low levels of educational attainment are more likely to be unemployed.

However, Canada does not compare favorably with the United States in its level of education. In 1965, 33 per cent of the American population, 18 years of age and over, had completed high school, whereas only 16.5 per cent of the Canadian population, 17 years and over had reached a similar level of attainment. This gap, however, is narrowing slightly, especially for the 20-24 year olds.

Studies conducted during the past five years have also shown high positive correlations between educational level and income, and between increases in gross national product and expenditures on education. Such results are often quoted as indications of educational output.

#### CONCLUDING NOTE

The preceding parts of this section have presented a quantitative view of the growth in enrolments and of the expansion of facilities in Alberta's educational system during the last ten years. The statistics presented illustrate the sheer magnitude of Alberta's educational enterprise.

But other difficult questions, at present unexamined or inadequately researched, must be answered. These questions concern the extension of educational opportunity, the quality of education, the direction and organization of the educational system, the content of education, and experimentation and innovation in education.

When such questions are discussed today, answers to them are subjective and impressionistic. In the future it is to be hoped that such information will be available to provide an objective "reference point for comment, debate, and understanding of [these aspects] of the educational system [as well]."





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Seastone, D. Education in Alberta Population Enrollment,  
Economic and Provincial Revenue Considerations.  
(Edmonton: Worth Commission on Educational Planning  
and the Human Resources Research Council), 1970.





Good health and long life are among the most basic concerns of all people.

The concept of health has had a variety of meanings. To some, it means being alive. Evidence of this is found in the fact that health has traditionally been measured by the rate at which people die. To others, health is freedom from physical disease and pain. Recently a broader definition of health has come into use. The Canadian Medical Association and the Alberta Medical Association have adopted the definition of the World Health Organization: health is "a state of complete mental, physical, emotional and social well-being."

In 1964, the Royal Commission on Health Services elaborated on these goals in its "health charter" for Canadians:

*The achievement of the highest possible health standards for all our people must become a primary objective of national policy and a cohesive factor contributing to national unity, involving individual and community responsibilities and actions. This objective can best be achieved through a comprehensive, universal Health Services Program for the Canadian people:*

*Implemented in accordance with Canada's evolving constitutional arrangements;*

*Based upon freedom of choice, and upon free and self-governing professions and institutions;*

*Financed through prepayment arrangements;*

*Accomplished through the full cooperation of the general public, the health professions, voluntary agencies, all political parties and governments, federal, provincial, and municipal;*

*Directed towards the most effective use of the nation's health resources to attain the highest possible levels of physical and mental well-being.*

Since this charter was suggested, Canada has come a long way toward a "comprehensive, universal health services program". Yet debates continue on health care goals and on the means by which to reach these goals.

One of the debates is whether responsibility for health care lies with the individual or the public. The Hall Commission report stated that although "the individual's responsibility for his personal health and that of members of his or her family is paramount to the extent of the individual's capabilities, the health of every individual is a social concern and responsibility."



A second debate is raging about how to raise the health levels of the community. Methods suggested include: investing resources into research; training more and better physicians; training others to make contributions to health care; treating health problems on a different level from that of simply curing disease; and more effective organization of health services.

The purpose of this section is to bring together available data relevant to the health needs of Albertans and to the health services in this province. This approach is not without problems. One of the most significant problems is that in the past the level of health of Alberta's people has been measured only negatively -- largely through mortality rates. Yet the length of life is no longer an adequate indication of health. A second problem has arisen from the fact that diseases are classified in different ways by different authorities.

This section contains three main parts following this introduction. The first is a summary of health and illness statistics for Alberta. The second provides an overview of health services in this province. The last deals briefly with some "present problems and future requirements."

## HEALTH AND ILLNESS IN ALBERTA

Ideally, statistics should be able to provide some simple answers to some simple questions about sick Albertans.

How many sick people are there in Alberta and what are their characteristics?

What illnesses do they have?

Are more Albertans sick with particular illnesses than people in other provinces?

Unfortunately, as the reader will soon see, simple answers are seldom available. Only preliminary answers to these questions can be ventured here.

The Physically  
Ill

The rate of infant mortality is a generally accepted indicator of the health of a population. The infant mortality rate in Canada (20.8 in 1968), regarded as rather high, still ranks below the United States. Alberta's was slightly lower in the same year at 20.1. The Canadian death rate was lower than that of the United States in 1968, at 7.4 compared with 9.6, and Alberta's death rate was lower than that of Canada, at 6.5. By these measures, Albertans are healthier than most Canadians and most Americans.



The death rate in Alberta is higher for males than for females, as is typically true elsewhere. It is higher in places with 1,000 to 4,999 population than it is in rural areas or places of 5,000 or more population. The lowest death rate of the three place-size categories occurs in cities. The Camrose, Medicine Hat and Fort McLeod-Cardston census divisions have the highest death rates, while the Edmonton and the Hinton-Edson areas have the lowest rates. There is no direct relationship apparent between death rates in census divisions and the number of people on reserves.

The biggest cause of death is disease of the circulatory system, with 3,463 Albertans dying from this cause in 1968. The death rate due to this cause is higher for males (2.9) than for females (1.6) and higher for persons living in centers of 1,000-4,999 population (3.4) than for persons who live in cities (2.2) or in rural areas (2.2). In 1967, 5.4 cases of arteriosclerotic heart disease (including coronary) cases per 1,000 population were separated from hospitals.

The second highest cause of deaths is neoplasms or cancer. In 1968, 1.2 deaths per 1,000 population were attributed to cancer. The death rate due to cancer is higher for males (1.4) than for females (1.1), largely because of the increase in the rate of lung cancer in men. Lung cancer is the largest single type of cancer, recording 601 cases in the province in 1967. Figure 1 also shows clearly that cancer is a disease of the older population.

Diseases of the circulatory system and cancer caused over half the deaths in Alberta in 1968. When the deaths due to the third and fourth major causes (diseases of the nervous system and accidents) are added, over three quarters of all deaths in Alberta have been accounted for.

A total of 0.8 deaths per 1,000 population were caused by diseases of the nervous system in 1968. The rate is slightly higher for men than for women. Cerebrovascular lesions account for the vast majority of deaths due to this cause.

Table 1 provides summary data on accidental and violent deaths in this province in 1968.

Among other diseases, it may be noted that Alberta had a higher rate of hospitalization for tuberculosis than any other province (17 per 100,000 population separated from hospitals), although the mortality rate for tuberculosis is very low (0.01 deaths per 1,000). More men died of tuberculosis than women. In 1968 the new active case rate by racial composition was: all Albertans, 19.2 per 100,000 population; registered Indians, 200; Metis, 177.





# AGE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION & PATIENTS WITH MALIGNANT DIAGNOSIS, 1968.

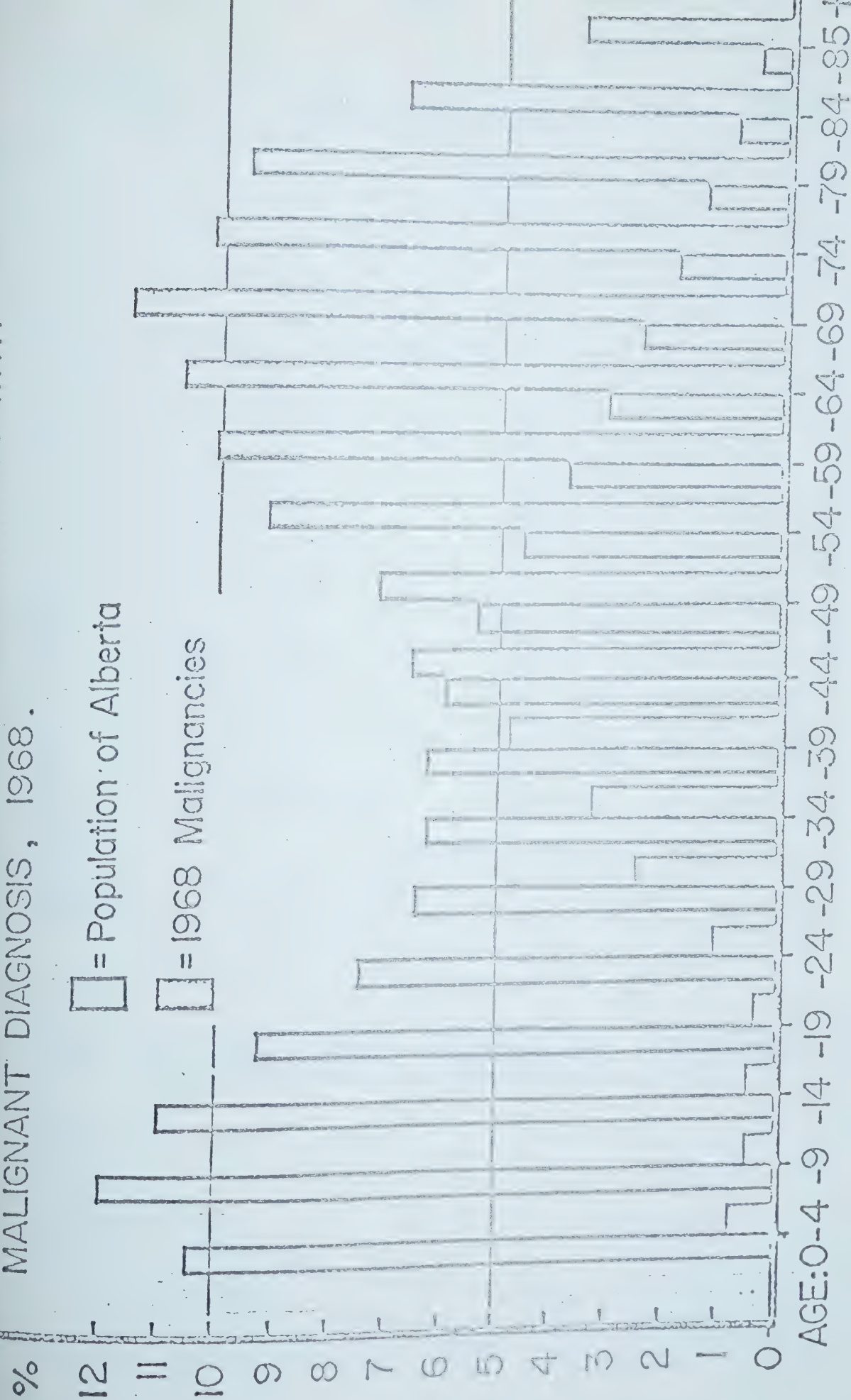






TABLE 1

ACCIDENTAL AND VIOLENT DEATH RATE (PER 100,000 POPULATION) BY CAUSE  
OF ACCIDENT FOR EACH SEX

ALBERTA, 1968

	Male	Female	Total
Motor Vehicle Accident	39.5	16.1	28.0
Other Transport Accident	3.6	0.3	2.0
Accidental Poisoning	5.9	2.8	4.4
Accidental Falls	8.1	7.7	7.9
Accident Caused by Machinery	4.5	0.4	2.5
Accident Caused by Fire and Explosion	4.2	3.1	3.7
Other Accidental Burns	0.1	0.0	0.1
Accident Caused by Firearm	1.5	0.0	0.8
Accidental Drowning	4.1	0.9	2.5
All Other Accidental Causes	9.4	2.8	6.1
Suicide	15.3	4.8	10.1
Homicide	1.5	1.3	1.4

Source: Annual Report (1968), Alberta Department of Health, Vital Statistics Division, Table 4, pp. 27-28.



There were 1,647 new cases of venereal disease in Alberta in 1968, the majority of them being gonorrhoea. In 1969, the syphilis rate was 8.5 per 100,000 persons; the gonorrhoea rate, 254.3. The sex ratio of syphilis cases is nearly 2 to 1 in favor of males. With gonorrhoea, the ratio is almost 3 to 1 in favor of males. Venereal disease seems not to be as rampant in teenage groups as might be believed. Only 5.9% of all reported syphilis cases and 12.1% of all reported and confirmed gonorrhoea cases were found in the below 19 age groups. The Indian and Metis population, comprising 3-5% of the Alberta population, accounted for 37% of the reported syphilis and 35% of the total gonorrhoea in 1968. If the Yukon and Northwest Territories are excluded, Alberta's rate of gonorrhoea is the highest in Canada.

In 1950-51 a survey was conducted in Canada on illness. Generally known as the Canadian Sickness Survey, it gathered data on a wide variety of dimensions pertinent to the physical well-being of Canadians. Data was collected on day-to-day complaints such as the common cold, childhood illnesses, and so on. Such items as number of days of complaint and disability by class of illness were gathered. To describe the complete range of data collected there would be impossible without exceeding by far the limits of this report. Suffice it to say that the Canadian Sickness Survey is an excellent collection of baseline morbidity data. The problem is that it has not been updated. Had it been updated, this section would have been far superior.

Because mental illness still carries a 19th century stigma and because adequate information is difficult to obtain, few people know very much about the dimensions of the problem.

There is considerable variability in the estimated proportion of the population which is suffering from mental illness, with estimates ranging from one person in sixteen to one person in one suffering from some type of mental disorder. The Canadian Mental Health Association claims that "upwards of one-third of the population has suffered with at least some temporary disability because of mental or emotional illness." In absolute terms this means that 7.1 million Canadians have, at some time, been mentally ill. If this estimate held true for Alberta, a total of 510,000 Albertans would have had some form of mental illness.

As of December 1969 nearly 6,000 Albertans were in mental institutions of various types. Alberta has the third highest rate of first admissions to mental hospitals in Canada in 1968, when 3,612 persons were admitted. These first admissions included about the same number of men as women, with elderly people being predominant, followed by men in

The Mentally  
Ill





their twenties, and women in their thirties. The pattern differs slightly from the all-Canada pattern in that a slightly greater proportion of younger Albertan males are admitted for the first time to mental hospitals.

Three occupations accounting for the largest number of first admissions in 1961 were craftsmen, service workers and farmers. Heaviest representation of first admissions in ethnic groups were English, Scottish and German (same number), Irish, Ukrainian, French, Polish and native Indians.

For males the highest rate of first admissions is due to alcoholism, the second to neuroses and the third to personality disorders or schizophrenia. For females the highest rate of first admission is due to neuroses, the second to affective psychoses and the third to schizophrenia (Table 2).

The Alberta Department of Health's Mental Health Division operates five guidance clinics which provided assistance to over 6,000 persons in 1968. Most patients seen in the clinics were under 20 years of age. The majority of the 583 new cases below the age of six were diagnosed as mental deficiencies; from six to 15 years, as transient situational disorders; and above 16, as psycho-neurotic disorders.

In 1967 Alberta had the highest rates of hospitalization for anxiety reactions, neurotic depressive reactions and alcoholism in all Canada. A total of 25 Albertans died in 1968 of mental, psychoneurotic and personality disorders, eighteen of them male.

A total of 190 persons were reported to have committed suicide in Alberta in 1969. The number of suicides appears to have increased since 1965, and many suicides are reported as other causes of death. If there are six attempts made for every successful suicide, as experts claim, over 1,000 Albertans attempted suicide in 1969. Calgary police reported 46 successful suicides and 220 attempts in 1969.

Records in Calgary indicate December is the peak month for suicides, women attempt suicide more frequently than men (but are less successful), most suicides occur between the ages of 20-29 and the most common method is pill overdose.

A report prepared by the Edmonton Welfare Council estimates that there are 1,942 children in Alberta who might be labelled as emotionally disturbed. There are also 43,000 who are mentally retarded.





TABLE 2

RATES OF FIRST ADMISSION TO MENTAL HOSPITALS (PER 100,00 POPULATION)  
BY DIAGNOSTIC CLASS AND SEX

ALBERTA AND CANADA, 1969

	Canada		Alberta	
	M	F	M	F
Psychoses	68	74	70	84
Senile and Presenile Dementia	5	5	8	8
Alcoholic Psychosis	6	2	6	2
Psychosis associated with intracranial infection	-	-	-	-
Psychosis associated with other cerebral condition	7	5	11	5
Psychosis associated with physical condition	3	4	3	4
Schizophrenia	26	25	23	25
Affective Psychoses	12	21	12	30
Paranoid States	3	3	3	2
Other	6	9	4	8
Neuroses	146	126	152	134
Neuroses	46	85	40	75
Personality disorders	18	13	24	16
Sexual deviation	1	-	2	-
Alcoholism	58	8	51	9
Drug Dependence	5	2	4	2
Physical Disorders with presumed psychogenic origin	1	1	1	-
Special symptoms	-	1	1	-
Transient situational disturbances	5	7	6	10
Behaviour Disorders of childhood	6	4	20	16
Mental Disorders not specified as psychotic, associated with physical conditions	6	5	4	7
Mental Retardation	12	8	8	6
Border-line	2	1	2	-
Mild	3	2	2	1
Moderate	2	2	1	1
Severe	2	1	1	1
Profound	2	1	1	2
Unspecified	2	1	2	1
Other Conditions	2	1	1	1
Epilepsy	1	1	1	1
Not elsewhere classified	-	1	-	-
Mental Observation Without Need For Further Medical Care	2	1	4	1

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Mental Health Statistics, Vol 1, Institutional Admissions and Separations, 1969, Table 3, pp. 38-39.



Male Albertans up to the age of 40 have a lower expectation of admission to a psychiatric institution than other Canadians at similar ages. Female Albertans have a lower rate of expectation than all female Canadians up to the age of 50. Over the age of 60, both male and female Albertans have a higher likelihood of admission.

## The Injured and the Handicapped

Disabilities may result from hereditary factors, birth difficulties, injuries or even from psychological frustrations. The lines between these many sources of handicap are not always clear; nor are the lines between permanent and temporary disability. For this reason, no attempt will be made here to differentiate between sources or duration of handicap. Because injuries often are a countable source of handicap, the choice was made to consider the injured and the handicapped as a single category.

The Alberta Registry for Handicapped Children and Adults contained a total of 17,128 persons in 1968. This is believed to be an under-enumeration of adults, since most of the information comes from public health nurses who deal mainly with children in schools. If the estimates were correct, approximately 1.1 per cent of the Alberta population in 1968 was handicapped. The largest number of registered handicaps occur for both sexes between the age of five and 14 years. The age and sex distribution of registered handicapped persons in Alberta may be seen in Table 3.

The ten most common disabilities are, in descending order of frequency: mental retardation, speech defects, epilepsy, visual defects, diabetes, congenital limb, hearing, cerebral palsy, club foot, late effects of poliomyelitis. There are sex differences in the prevalence of various disabilities. For instance, diabetes is more common among women than men and speech defects occur more frequently among males.

More than half of all registered handicaps are diagnosed as diseases of the nervous system and sense organs and as congenital anomalies. These diagnostic categories together with mental disorders account for two-thirds of all registered handicaps.

Little information is published on the geographical distribution of handicapped person in Alberta. Some private organizations dedicated primarily to providing services to persons with particular disabilities are sources of limited data on the handicapped in Alberta. The Alberta Division of the CNIB estimates there are 1,792 registered blind persons in Alberta, about half of them over 65 years old. The Cystic Fibrosis Society reports a doubling of the rate





TABLE 3

AGE-SEX DISTRIBUTION OF REGISTERED HANDICAPPED PERSONS IN ALBERTA, 1968

AGE	MALE	FEMALE	UNKNOWN	TOTAL
< 1 Yr.	272	209	5	486
1 - 4 Yrs.	1517	1143	8	2668
5 - 9	2597	1876	15	4488
10 - 14	1924	1458	3	3385
15 - 19	1280	1086	3	2369
Children's Sub-Total	7590	5772	34	13396
20 - 29	643	505	2	1150
30 - 39	237	240	0	477
40 - 49	198	209	1	408
50 - 59	158	192	1	351
60 +	616	729	1	1346
Adult Sub-Total	1852	1875	5	3732
Grand-Total	9442	7647	39	17128

Source: Registry for Handicapped Children and Adults, Annual Report, 1968, Alberta Department of Health, p. 11.





of this genetic disease in Canada since 1962, when one in every 1,000 persons was afflicted. The rate in 1970 was one in every 500. The Alberta Association for the Mentally Retarded says that three-fourths of all mentally retarded people are between the ages of five and 21 years.

The Alberta Division of the Canada Paraplegic Association reports that in 1970 there were 675 known paraplegics in Alberta, 70 per cent of whom were male and the majority between 21 and 30 years of age. Most live in Calgary or Edmonton.

The three most common sources of injury, in descending order of frequency, were auto accidents, industrial accidents and swimming accidents.

The educational attainments of Alberta's paraplegics exceeds that for all Canadians. Alberta shows a higher percentage of paraplegics with technical or university training. A higher proportion of Albertan paraplegics live in institutions. Alberta slightly exceeds all Canada in the proportion of paraplegics in the lower income categories.

#### Addiction

Addiction is a primary concern of the modern North American. That concern appears to be growing. Unfortunately the whole subject of addiction -- to alcohol, to drugs, to tobacco -- is characterized by lack of information, by myth and misinformation, and by inadequate aid for those who seek it.

#### Alcoholism

The World Health Organization defines alcoholics as: "Those excessive drinkers whose dependence on alcohol has attained such a degree that it shows a noticeable mental disturbance of or interference with their bodily or mental health, their interpersonal relations and their smooth economic and social functioning."

Alcoholism continues to be the most serious social problem in North America, according to Alfred Herold, director of education for the California Council on Alcohol and Drug Problems.

In Alberta it is estimated there are 40,000 to 50,000 hazardous drinkers -- slightly over five per cent of the drinking population in Alberta and about four per cent of the total population 15 years or older. The average annual increase in the number of alcoholics in Canada since 1951 has been estimated at five per cent.

An increase of more than 150 per cent in the number of convictions involving alcohol was registered in Canada between 1951 and 1966. And the rates of conviction for drunkenness







or impaired driving and for other offenses under the Liquor Control Authority in Alberta were higher than those in all Canada in 1967.

Figures show the average Albertan consumes more alcohol than the average Canadian. Each person over the age of 15 years spent about \$115 on alcoholic beverages during 1968, compared with \$104 for all Canada.

Alcoholics in Alberta, as in all of Canada, are present in every occupation and income group. Alcoholism is most common to those 35-65 years of age. A similar ratio prevails in Alberta but is changing rapidly. Of the eighty-three reported deaths attributed to cirrhosis of the liver in Alberta in 1968, twenty-seven occurred in Calgary and nineteen in Edmonton. These deaths were almost 2 to 1 in favor of men.

Given the prevalence of alcoholism in Canada, comparatively little research has been undertaken on the topic.

#### Drug addiction

Dependence on tranquillizers, mood-elevators and hallucinogenic drugs is believed to be increasing in Canada.

with this prompted the appointment in 1968 of the Le Dain Royal Commission to study the non-medical use of drugs. In Alberta a committee has been established by the Alberta Medical Association to study alcoholism and drug abuse and \$10,000 has been granted by the provincial government to an Edmonton drug treatment centre.

The scarcity of adequate data on drug addiction in Canada provides little basis for assessing the justifiability of this concern.

The Le Dain Commission states there were more than 4,000 drug addicts in Canada in 1969, and that 62 per cent of these were in British Columbia and 23 per cent in Ontario. 4.5 per cent of addicts were in Alberta.

In the eight years from 1961 to 1969, a 5.6 per cent increase was observed in the number of drug addicts in Canada, the commission estimated. This represents a decline in the proportion of drug addicts to the total population. The commission reported that it has little statistical evidence to support the contention that the number of young drug addicts is increasing in Canada.

Occupational and sex distributions of criminal addicts are provided in Tables 4 and 5.





TABLE 4

Criminal Addict Population by Occupation  
Canada and Alberta, 1969

	Canada	Alberta
Labourers and unskilled	23.0%	22.4%
Service occupations	12.2	7.8
Skilled workers	7.0	15.1
Natural Resources Workers	5.5	5.3
Prostitutes	4.4	5.3
Clerical Sales	4.4	3.3
Housewife	3.8	4.6
Transportation	4.0	1.3
Other occupations	2.4	4.6
Not known	33.3	30.3
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Le Dain Commission, Interim Report, 1969, p. 322,  
and R.C.M.P. Brief to the Le Dain Commission, 1969.

TABLE 5

Criminal Addict Population by Age  
Canada and Alberta 1969

	Canada	Alberta
Under 20 years	1.5	2.6
20 - 24	9.8	6.6
25 - 29	17.9	22.3
30 - 34	16.5	14.4
35 - 39	13.8	11.4
40 - 49	17.3	17.2
50 - 59	7.5	5.3
60 - 69	3.5	2.6
70 +	.8	0
Unknown	11.4	17.6
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: See Table 4.



Users of marijuana and hashish are excluded from the addicted population described above. In 1962 only 24 marijuana cases came to the attention of the Narcotic Control Division. In 1969 the number was 5,157. Ten per cent of all convictions involving marijuana and hashish in Canada in 1969 occurred in Alberta.

In all Canada in 1969, the sex ratio for convictions involving marijuana and hashish was six males to one female. Approximately one-half of the marijuana convictions in Canada in 1969 involved those under 20 years. Nearly 89 per cent were under 25 years. No data on marijuana convictions in Alberta by age and sex are available.

Very little research has been done in Canada on the socio-economic factors in drug addiction. The Department of National Health and Welfare conducted a study of this sort in 1948, but no comparable study has been undertaken since.

#### Smoking

Since smoking is generally though to be habit-forming, it has been included under the general topic of addiction. Information about the incidence of addiction to tobacco comes from a survey by the Department of National Health and Welfare in 1964 on the smoking habits of Canadians, and from statistics on deaths attributed to lung cancer. Since lung cancer cannot be said with certainty to be always induced by smoking, the latter source is of dubious merit.

The survey found that 54.7 per cent of the population did not smoke, while 42 per cent smoked every day. Smokers occurred most commonly in the 20-44 age group, and those over 65 smoked least.

No comparable Alberta data exists but there seems to be little reason to believe that the 1964 Canadian survey does not reflect the situation in Alberta as well.

Of all deaths occurring in Alberta in 1968 and attributable to cancer, over 12 per cent were diagnosed as lung cancer. Little research is available on this matter.

#### The Physically Fit

Physical fitness has become an important concern in both Canada and the United States. In Canada the Fitness and Amateur Sport Act was enacted in 1961, setting aside \$5 million a year for "the encouragement, promotion and development of active leisure pursuits for Canadians."







Although most people agree that physical fitness is important and should be encouraged, no nationally recognized test of physical fitness yet exists. And very little reliable data exists by which to assess the present state of physical fitness in Canada.

Research continues at the Fitness Research Unit in an attempt to find a practical and valid way by which to measure physical fitness, to determine the components of fitness and to study the effects of physical exercises and exertion on the human body.

## EXISTING HEALTH SERVICES

A survey of general health services available to Albertans will be considered under three specific topics: general health services, special health programs and services aimed towards prevention of illness.

### General Services: Facilities

A total of 329,819 cases were separated from hospitals in Alberta in 1969, giving the province one of the highest hospitalization rates in Canada. Over 90 per cent of these cases were in public hospitals, and almost 4,000,000 patient days were spent in Alberta hospitals in 1969.

There were 163 operating hospitals in Alberta in 1968 with a rated bed capacity of 19,871. Alberta had the highest rate of hospital beds per 1,000 population in 1969. Approximately 75 per cent of these beds were occupied. Most of Alberta's hospitals are general hospitals, but in addition there were 27 chronic, convalescent and rehabilitation hospitals, five uncategorized general hospitals, eight mental hospitals and two tuberculosis hospitals.

Forty-one of Alberta's hospitals are located in places with more than 5,000 population. Thirty-five of these hospitals are in cities with populations greater than 25,000 with twenty-five of these in Edmonton and Calgary. In 1970 in Alberta, 72 per cent of all hospital beds are located in cities of 5,000 or more, 67 per cent in cities of 25,000 or more and 50 per cent in the two largest cities. The general geographic distribution of health institutions is provided in Table 6.

In 1968 Alberta had nearly 6,000 beds in mental hospitals. Alberta's public hospitals were occupied at the 91 per cent level. The two hospitals for the mentally retarded in Alberta were 97.4 per cent occupied, while the hospital for the emotionally disturbed reported an occupancy of 42 per cent.





TABLE 6

## DISTRIBUTION OF INSTITUTIONS BY CENSUS DIVISION, 1970

Census Division	POPULATION		RATED BED CAPACITIES <sup>1</sup> For Approved Hospitals			AUXILIARY HOSPITALS <sup>2</sup>			SENIOR CITIZENS HOMES <sup>3</sup>			NURSING HOMES <sup>4</sup>		
	No.		No. of Beds	%	Persons Beds	No. of Beds	%	Persons Beds	No. of Beds	%	Persons Beds	No. of Beds	%	Persons Beds
1	39,165	2.5	250	2.3	156.7	100	3.9	391.7	100	2.9	391.7	230	4.1	170.3
2	85,662	5.5	670	6.1	127.9	100	3.9	836.6	250	7.2	342.6	209	3.8	409.9
3	26,621	1.7	192	1.7	138.7	72	2.8	369.7	200	5.8	143.1	50	.9	512.4
4	14,338	.9	110	1.0	130.2	-	-	-	50	1.5	286.8	50	.9	286.8
5	34,855	2.2	200	1.8	174.3	30	1.2	1161.8	200	3.8	174.3	153	7.4	262.1
6	425,477	27.3	2,731	24.7	155.8	750	29.3	587.3	543	15.9	783.6	1,687	30.3	232.2
7	41,570	2.7	322	2.9	129.1	150	5.7	277.1	236	6.9	176.1	56	.7	1154.7
8	78,088	5.0	507	4.6	154.0	136	5.3	574.2	222	8.7	261.2	371	6.7	210.5
9	16,405	1.0	145	1.3	113.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	71,134	4.6	627	5.7	113.5	200	7.8	353.9	350	10.2	603.4	358	6.4	198.8
11	527,591	33.9	3,964	35.8	133.1	836	32.7	631.1	644	18.8	819.2	1,773	31.9	297.6
12	53,438	3.4	373	3.4	143.2	-	-	-	150	4.4	356.2	156	2.8	342.5
13	40,741	2.6	249	1.3	163.6	50	2.0	814.8	150	4.4	271.6	154	2.8	264.6
14	19,715	1.3	111	1.0	177.6	-	-	-	50	1.5	394.3	-	-	-
15	81,169	5.2	621	3.6	130.7	135	5.3	601.3	200	5.8	405.8	354	6.4	229.3
Province					140.5			608.1			459.7			279.8

Sources: (1) (2): Division of Hospital Services, January 1, 1970.

(3) (4): Homes and Institutions Branch, Department of Social Development, December 1, 1969.



Of the eight mental hospitals reporting data in Alberta in 1968, all provided occupational therapy. Most provided diagnostic x-ray services, electroencephalography, social services, out-patient services and after-care of discharged in-patients. Some provided clinical pathology services, electrocardiography, organized home visiting services and trial weekends. None of the reporting Alberta mental hospitals provided x-ray therapy, day-centre therapy or night-centre therapy.

In 1967 there were 15 privately owned institutions for emotionally disturbed and mentally retarded children, in addition to five small public facilities and seven guidance clinics operated by the province. There were 29 auxilliary hospitals with a total of 2,267 beds. In 1970 there were 52 nursing homes with a total of 4,245 beds and 73 homes for the aged, including lodges, cottages and self-contained units.

#### General Services: Personnel

In 1961 Alberta had 11.1 persons per 1,000 population employed in the health industry, compared with 10.1 per 1,000 for all Canada. Hospital personnel per 100 rated beds for Canada was 220.1 in 1968, while for Alberta the figure was 176.1, the third lowest rate in Canada.

In 1968 Alberta had 2,170 physicians, of whom 337 were on the Educational Register and taking training in an Alberta hospital. With one physician for every 817 population (the above 337 are excluded), "Alberta appears to be well supplied with physicians at the present time," according to the Alberta Medical Association.

There were 726 specialists in Alberta in 1968. The majority of these were either surgeons or internists, and over one-half of all specialists are either surgeons, internists, obstetricians or gynecologists, or anesthetists.

There is a heavy concentration of medical specialists in Calgary and Edmonton, while Northern Alberta lacks specialists. The number of psychiatrists in Alberta more than doubled between 1960 and 1968, but there still appears to be a shortage. Distribution of physicians by census division shows that Drumheller, Athabasca and Fort McMurray are all above 1,600 people for one doctor, or more than twice what is considered optimal (Table 7).

In 1911 there was one dentist for every 3,565 persons in Alberta. In 1969 the ratio of dentists to total population was 1 to 2, 852. Since the optimal ratio is considered to be 1 to 1, 500, the Alberta Dental Association expressed the opinion in its submission to the Grisdale Report that the present ratio is far from what is needed for comprehensive care.





Table 7

Physicians by Census Division  
Population per Physician and General Practitioner

December, 1968 with comparison 1960

Census Division	Population	No. of Physicians	General Practitioners	Specialists	Pop. per Physician	Pop. per Gen. Prac.	1960	
							Pop. per Physician	Pop. per Gen. Prac.
1	38,858	38	24	14	1,023	1,619	1,036	1,533
2	83,452	102	67	35	819	1,244	925	1,395
3	30,246	22	19	3	1,375	1,592	1,314	1,439
4	14,368	10	10	-	1,437	1,437	1,851	2,115
5	36,058	19	17	2	1,899	2,121	1,880	2,211
6	394,122	513	275	238	770	1,433	915	1,641
7	41,333	29	28	1	1,425	1,470	1,469	1,523
8	84,998	84	66	18	1,012	1,288	1,219	1,575
9	23,336	17	15	2	1,317	1,556	1,513	2,017
10	69,269	55	46	9	1,260	1,505	1,617	1,987
11	493,681	792	395	397	624	1,250	757	1,438
12	53,782	33	33	-	1,630	1,630	1,942	1,942
13	44,838	25	22	3	1,794	2,038	2,489	2,489
14	20,732	14	14	-	1,481	1,481	1,895	1,895
15	77,029	53	51	2	1,452	1,570	2,047	2,104

Source: L. C. Grisdale, M.D., Coordinator, "Inequalities of Opportunity in Health Services in Alberta by the Health Sciences Professions," prepared for the Alberta Human Resources Research Council, Symposium on Social Opportunity in Alberta, April 1968, p.





Most of the dentists are in cities. Dental health programs partially rectify the dentist shortage in rural areas, and a volunteer dentist program for rural Albertans also helps alleviate the situation (Table 8).

In 1969 there were 54 dental hygienists, 520 dental assistants and 151 dental technicians in Alberta.

There were 9,486 registered nurses in Alberta in 1970, giving the province one nurse per 166 population, compared to the national average of 1 to 157. Almost two-thirds of all registered nurses are in Calgary and Edmonton, and 60 per cent are employed in hospitals. There are about 600 practicing orderlies in Alberta.

The Alberta Pharmaceutical Association reports there were a total of 1,040 practicing pharmacists in the province in 1970, a ratio of one pharmacist per 1,500 population. Although the distribution is said to be good, there may be three groups who do not have access to pharmacists: the native population, the elderly and the poor.

A comparison of per patient ratios of selected professional and technical staff in hospitals shows that Alberta compares favorably with Canada in most categories.

#### General Services: Costs

In 1969 Albertans paid an average of \$198.99 per capita for personal health services. They were second only to the residents of Ontario who paid \$204.50 per capita.

In 1970 the cost per patient-day for all hospital services in general hospitals was \$47.27, in public hospitals, \$42.95. These figures compare with \$55.37 and \$51.73 respectively for all of Canada.

The Alberta Health Care Insurance Plan began operating on July 1, 1969, financed by premiums from residents, federal cost-sharing and subsidies from the provincial government. A total of 1,637,677 persons were insured under the plan in 1970.

A total of \$133,208,209 was spent in hospitals in Alberta in 1968, about \$88 per capita. The comparable rate for all Canada was \$80. Hospital expenditures for 1968 are shown in Table 9.

Glancing briefly at the earnings of physicians, it is noted that in 1967 in Alberta, physicians received an average of \$28,334 a year. This is second only to Ontario where physicians received \$29,444. Both provinces experienced an average annual rate of increase of 7.8 per cent in the 1957-57 period.





TABLE 8

Population/Dentist Ratios  
Alberta and Canada - 1969

	<u>Dentists</u>	<u>Population</u>	<u>Ratio</u>
Edmonton	255	393,000	1:1541
Calgary	154	355,000	1:2305
Remainder	126	778,000	1:6175
Alberta	535	1,526,000	1:2852
Canada	-	-	1:3096

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Source: L. C. Grisdale, M.D., Coordinator, "Inequalities of Opportunity in Health Services in Alberta by the Health Sciences Professions," prepared for the Alberta Human Resources Research Council, Symposium on Social Opportunity in Alberta, April 1968, p. 47



TABLE 9

Distribution of Reported Hospital Expenditures  
by Type of Expense  
Alberta and Canada - 1968

	<u>Alberta</u>	<u>Canada</u>
Gross salaries and wages	64.2%	66.9%
Medical and surgical supplies	2.7	3.1
Drugs	3.1	3.3
Other supplies and expense	21.3	22.0
Other non-departmental expense	<u>8.7</u>	<u>4.7</u>
Total	100.0	100.0
	(\$133,208,209)	(\$1,718,990,050)

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Sources: Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Hospital Statistics, Vol. VI, Hospital Expenditures, 1968, Table 4, pp. 48-49





The Federal Government funds provincial projects to develop new health services. In 1968-69, a grant of \$2,612,427 was made to Alberta.

Services for the  
Injured and  
Handicapped

A variety of services are provided for the injured and handicapped in Alberta. Provincial organizations include the Alberta Department of Health, the Alberta Department of Social Development, the Workmen's Compensation Board, the Special Services Branch of the Alberta Department of Education and the Industrial Research and Training Center.

Federal services are provided under the Vocational Rehabilitation of Disabled Persons Act, the Blind Persons Act, and the Department of National Health and Welfare and the Department of Veterans Affairs. There are also many private organizations which cater to the needs of those with specific types of disabilities.

Among the public bodies many of the services are of a preventive nature. These include the Division of Local Health Services, which provides immunization against potentially disabling diseases, Health Education Services, which disseminates information. And so on.

Monetary assistance and training programs are provided by the Department of Social Development, the Workmen's Compensation Board, the Special Services Branch of the Alberta Department of Education, which is responsible for such institutions as the Alberta School for the Deaf and hearing conservation programs in the Edmonton and Calgary public schools. The Industrial Research and Training Center operates under a grant from the province, its goal being to train retarded people for employment.

A large number of private organizations exist on the federal, provincial and local level which provide services for the injured and the handicapped. The Alberta Rehabilitation Council for the Disabled, the Rehabilitation Society of Alberta and the Alberta Association for the Mentally Retarded are cases in point.

It is difficult to assess whether these services meet the needs of the people they serve. Two problems may exist with respect to services for the disabled. One is the lack of coordinated effort, which may result in a large number of private organizations. The other is the fact that many of the services provided to the handicapped are dependent on the goodwill of individuals in the community.





## Services for the Addicted

### Alcoholism

Public responsibility for the treatment and rehabilitation of alcoholism in Alberta lies largely with the Division of Alcoholism, Department of Health. In 1967, the Division of Alcoholism reported a dramatic expansion of services. Community Alcoholism Programs, special training in treatment of alcoholism, non-credit courses in alcoholism at Alberta universities, the improvement of institutional alcoholic programs, wider dissemination of information on alcoholism, and the opening of the residential rehabilitation unit (Henwood) were part of this expansion.

Other department work includes treatment centers, counselling programs in prisons, RCMP training courses and a halfway house. At the last sitting of the Legislature the Alberta Alcohol and Drug Abuse Commission was formed to replace the Division of Alcoholism. It is hoped this commission will expand the present programs of the division.

Private organizations working to combat alcoholism in Alberta include Alcoholics Anonymous, which has 36 groups; Project Recovery, a residential rehabilitation center for male alcoholics; the Jellinek House in Edmonton, sponsored by the United Church of Canada; and the Salvation Army, which recently announced plans for a \$125,000 residence treatment center for alcoholics.

### Drug addiction

A large number of independent and semi-independent drug treatment centers have sprung up in Alberta, most of which provide limited counselling services. Several drug education programs are in progress across Canada and in Alberta, and a pilot drug education program when into operation in Edmonton schools in January of 1971.

### Special Programs and Preventive Services

There are a wide range of diverse programs and services directed toward improving the health of or preventing illness in Alberta. The number of these is so large that not even a listing of them can be provided here. Some special programs and services, of course, have been mentioned earlier in the report.

A Manual of Related Services is published by the Alberta Department of Health, Division of Local Health Services; the third edition appeared in 1970. The Manual attempts to provide information on all agencies that serve provincial health needs.

The local Boards of Health - of the cities in Alberta - operate health services within their jurisdictions. Some variation exists from place to place.





The Department of National Health and Welfare provides medical services to registered Indians and Eskimos who are not included under provincial arrangements and who are unable to provide for themselves. The Department also coordinates federal and territorial health care for all residents in northern Canada.

In 1966, a Special Legislative Lay Committee inquiring into Preventive Health Services in Alberta submitted its report. The various agencies involved in the prevention of disease are described. Problems in their operation are pointed out. At the federal level, responsibility for the prevention of disease lies with three departments, the Department of National Health and Welfare, the Department of Agriculture and the Department of Fisheries. The majority of preventive medicine programs for which the provincial government is responsible fall under the jurisdiction of the Division of Local Health Services and the Division of Medical Services.

CONCLUSION: SOME  
NOTES ON PRESENT  
PROBLEMS AND FUTURE  
REQUIREMENTS

The major problem emerging from consideration of the physically ill in Alberta is a universal one in Canada, namely "the death rate, and indeed the entire battery of vital statistics that have long been collected no longer yield enough information on which to have a sound health policy." No nationwide survey of health has been undertaken since 1961. The Alberta Health Care study should be an excellent source of self-defined illness data when it becomes available.

The problem involved in determining the needs of the mentally ill are similar to those for the physically ill: little data on incidence exists. In the case of the mentally ill this problem is more difficult to overcome for two reasons: the uncertainty which still surrounds mental illness and the fact that few deaths are directly attributable to mental illness.

The Alberta Registry for Handicapped Children and Adults goes a long way toward filling the need for information on the incidence and distribution of handicapped persons. Services explicitly aimed toward meeting the needs of the handicapped are many and diverse and there are potential problems of duplication. However many of the services provided by private associations are limited, although well-intentioned, by scarcity of funds.

In the case of the addicted, lack of information also characterizes the subject. No adequate recent data exists on incidence of addiction to alcoholism, to drugs or to tobacco. Of these, the least information seems to be about drug addiction.







Services aimed at the addicted are limited, with the best services available for the alcohol addict. Even these, however, are far from adequate if the estimates of the numbers of alcoholics are valid. Services for drug addicts are, for the most part, run on an ad hoc basis. Very minimal services exist for those smokers who wish to "kick the habit".

Very little is known about how many people or what kinds of people are physically fit in Alberta. Although a large number of different services are available for those who wish to keep fit, it appears these facilities are not being fully utilized.

Problems concerned with health services include the apparent underutilization of hospital beds in Alberta, the separation of physical and mental health facilities, the lack of planning for mental health facilities and the lack of rehabilitation for the mentally ill. A number of recommendations for improving health care facilities in Canada were put forth by the Task Force on Beds and Facilities.

Other problems include: the concentration of specialized physicians in Calgary and Edmonton and dearth of specialists in Northern Alberta; the shortage of psychiatrists and dentists; the lack of para-dental personnel; the concentration of registered nurses in Calgary and Edmonton; the lack of proper educational preparation for directors of nursing in rural Alberta; the scarcity of nursing aides and orderlies; and the lack of sufficient optometrists.

A high price is paid per capita for health services in Alberta. Whether Albertans receive adequate medical treatment for this money is a question which must remain unanswered in this report.





One of the most common and visible yet least well understood and researched aspects of human life is religious experience.

To anchor our discussion somewhat and to avoid belaboring the reader with theoretical arguments in favor of one definition or another, religion in this report will simply be considered as "a belief in the supernatural."

Given the present state of our knowledge about religious experience it is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to settle on a statistically effective definition of religion and of the many other concepts used in any discussion of religion, religious life, and religious belief.

Several further comments are needed to extend this definition:

- (1) In a sociological sense, religion has both individual and social functions. It plays an important part in the individual's psychological development and in his adaptation to his social and natural environment. Socially, it encourages some forms of behavior and discourages others.
- (2) Religion is practiced as well as believed. Even when beliefs are made exact by doctrine and institutionalized, actual practice varies among individuals.
- (3) Religious belief and action, at the group and individual levels, are extremely diverse and complex. Many religions are considered only "philosophies of life." Others have particular characteristics drawn from their definitions of faith, religious awe, notions of the sacred and magic.
- (4) Matters which might not normally be considered religious, such as skepticism, religious indifference or atheism, should be included in any study of religion.

Our discussion of the religious experience of Albertans has three parts. The first part presents a number of brief case studies on the personal religious beliefs and experiences of several Albertans to demonstrate what different people feel religion means to them. The second part presents much of the statistical data available on religion in Alberta; it is oriented primarily to Alberta's formally organized religions. The third deals with relations between church and state and religious tolerance.

In the following case studies it will be seen that (1) individual differences in religious belief patterns are quite substantial and that individuals may have apparently contradictory beliefs, and (2) that the study of case histories reveals much more about the psychological make-up of religious adherents than does a more traditional approach.





These two statements are particularly important when considered in relation to concerns in mental health and the individual's place between personal religious belief and religious practice within society.

One source for data which might shed light on this relationship would be the medical records of mental institutions or those of private doctors. A second source might be church records or records taken from church-affiliated organizations. Finally, personal accounts, accounts from diaries or logs and records of personal discussions also provide this same type of information. Research into the mechanism of individual religious behavior has not yet been accomplished, least of all in Alberta. However this province is rich in documentation of personal records, logs, diaries, etc., and could be an ideal place to forward such research efforts. Of particular interest in this context would be research linking personal religious experiences to formal religion and mental well-being or distress, particularly in these days when personal religion appears to be on the upswing.

Alice B \_\_\_\_\_ is a 56-year-old female office worker who moved from England to Canada when she was 32. She came from a completely atheistic family and was not christened in the Anglican Church until the age of 24. She has not attended church except for weddings and funerals in the past ten years, yet she prays every night, enlists God's aid in time of trouble and recognizes God as a supernatural being. Alice tends to appreciate the emotive, rather than the rational qualities of her religion. She claims she needs the emotional support of the church to protect her from a soft, decadent society. Her reason for not attending church regularly is based on her feeling that she can remain in communion with God inside, or outside the church.

James K \_\_\_\_\_ is a 45-year-old male, Roman Catholic, who was once in the priesthood. He is now very confident and comfortable with his present outlook toward religion. Still a Catholic, he feels that organized religion, as such, is dying and that religion in general is moving toward more individualistic forms of expression. In terms of his religious experience he once had the feeling that a constant presence of a power greater than himself, in charge of things, existed in the world. He has kept this feeling with him and on this he has based his current rationalistic opinion of religion.

Robin C \_\_\_\_\_, also a middle-aged male, and a professional living in Edmonton, claims to be a member of a witches' coven. This warlock, or male witch, first became aware of witchcraft when he lived among the Hopi Indians in the United States.



Becoming involved with their rituals he found his "psychic powers" grew and was duly initiated into their witchcraft society. Upon moving to Edmonton, Robin found these increased "psychic powers" permitted him to contact other people, all of whom had a similar inclination toward witchcraft. In this way he met his wife, and along with her and other friends, formed an Edmonton coven. His prior religious experience includes membership in an evangelical religious sect, given up at an early age. He feels that the key to religious experience can be found in his witchcraft religion and in the awareness of the "psychic powers" which he possesses.

Another form of religious experience is presented by Eli \_\_\_\_\_, a middle-aged male, and member of the Hutterite Brethren. This man has spent his entire life in one or another of several Hutterite colonies. He is now a member of a Hutterite colony in the north-central portion of the province. Religious experience to this man is expressed in terms of the group in which he is a member. The frame of reference for any religious experience is the Bible. The informant constantly referred to the Bible as the word of God which required that "all men live together, work together and cooperate". His sense of religious experience closely involves working with others and working on the land.

Carol C \_\_\_\_\_ is a Cree Native girl, Roman Catholic by faith, and in her early twenties. Religion to her is a combination of Roman Catholic theology and remnants of her own Native religious beliefs. Carol relates a story of her religious experience involve a miracle which occurred to her in the northern part of the province and which illustrates the combination of her beliefs. Within the Cree religion it is believed that the Northern Lights are in reality ghost spirits of ancestors who once lived on earth. Furthermore, it is believed that if one stands in the bush in the evening and whistles at these lights, they will come down and dance upon the ground. The informant relates the story of now one night when she was alone in the clearing she whistled at the lights. A vision of the Virgin Mary appeared before her eyes. The Virgin warned her to be a good and responsive girl to the ways of God, and to refuse to drink, since drunkenness was held in ill favor by the Heavenly Father. This request has been a source of difficulty for the girl, but she has tried to refrain from drinking.

George R \_\_\_\_\_ is a university professor, approximately 50 years old, whose religious affiliation is Unitarian. He claims that the closest thing to a religious experience he has encountered was when he was placed under laughing gas in the dentist's office. He has no belief in the supernatural whatever. To Professor R \_\_\_\_\_ religion seems to be more of a humanistic, ethical system, or a belief in the basic goodness of man. The professor feels that churches are "on their way out" and that religion will inevitably become more individualistic





in nature. He believes that a belief in the supernatural will be exchanged for a more ethical and moral system in the future, and that this will hold the answer for most persons as a justification for their existence. He attends the Unitarian Church because it was the only church within whose framework he could express these ideas socially. The Unitarian Church gives him a chance for fellowship with persons who hold similar beliefs.

Johnny S \_\_\_\_\_ is a 24-year-old male, a foreman in an Edmonton tire shop. He moved to the city from a rural area at age 18, and is married. He has no particular religious affiliation. He does not attend church. However, he does believe in God, but claims he couldn't or wouldn't explain what God was. Johnny prays to God, or thinks of God only when he is in serious trouble, or when he is in need of something for himself or his family. He is a good, hard worker, and cares very much for his family and his occupational life. Job status is an important item, as is family life. However, pleasure, including partying, time spent in the beer parlor and other social activities are counterbalanced to the activities practiced at home and in work. He does not consider religion except when he is in desperate need. He claims not to have had any sort of religious experience.

Oscar D \_\_\_\_\_ is a middle-aged male from a small Alberta farming community who is in one of the province's mental institutions as a result of his religious experiences. Some 36 years ago Oscar claimed he became aware of God, and the will of God, while inside one of the out-buildings on his farm. From that time forward he practiced preaching God's will as he saw it to the people of his small farm community. While case records are not available, the informant has been diagnosed as Schizophrenic. He claims people of the town rebelled against him when he tried to preach the "true word". Eventually these people and his family had him committed to the mental institution where he now stays. His religious beliefs are those of an extreme Protestant fundamentalist nature, flavored by his own peculiar sense of judgement. These beliefs are so extraordinary that according to the people of his community he needed medical treatment.

A native family, as a group, is the next set of informants. The family includes a young Cree boy, aged approximately 20; his wife, a Piegan girl of about the same age, and their two children. The girl's father has for some years been a well-known evangelical preacher to Native people in the southern part of the province. The boy, after marrying her, came into contact with another evangelical leader, and the family took up the religious tenets of the new preacher, including "bearing witness" and abstaining from smoking and drinking. They claimed to be "much better off" in their religion since they



followed his teachings. For one thing, they channelled their financial resources in a direction that was more pleasing to themselves. Both remarked that spending money on a house and on education is far more important than spending money on smoking and drinking. Recently both have fallen away from the church somewhat and are drinking and smoking to a limited extent. Yet they feel guilty about their actions and have a strong desire to return to the teachings of the evangelist.

Rodger Q \_\_\_\_\_ is a very well educated male in his late twenties who works as a teacher and educational counselor. He claims his religious affiliation to be "Christian", and states he has not found any person with any religious beliefs very similar to his own. He maintains his beliefs are based predominantly on an ethical, humanistic system, and that he "finds God" in these beliefs. He stresses the importance of individual belief patterns in contrast to those of the community, and feels that organized religion is no longer meaningful because it is based upon a concept of a God "out there", a concept which is no longer valuable today.

#### FORMALLY ORGANIZED RELIGION

Any study of formally organized religion must have some sort of definition of the various agencies involved. For the purpose of this report, religious organizations in Alberta have been classified into churches, sects, and cults.<sup>1</sup> The following definitions can be brought to life by keeping in mind the previous case studies.

(1) The sociological definition of church is a religious body, organization or institution of believers and clergy, who come together for divine public worship, and profess a particular doctrine or system of beliefs. Churches are usually large and hierarchical in structure, have a paid professional class and a traditional theological stance over a long period of time. They are considered to be religious structures which have become well accommodated to the secular world, and for the most part they are aligned with the middle and upper classes. Membership in the church is taken as a token of respectability, and thus the spirit of the church is largely this-worldly and accommodative.

(2) The sect is defined as a social institution distinguished from the church by certain basic characteristics. These include an aesthetic morality which renounces many "worldly" values and mores, a protest against religious formality and conventionality, and an attempt to recover the original and unadulterated essence of religion. Sects are also known for their high degree of equality and fraternity among the members; an unusual degree of lay participation; their exclusiveness

<sup>1</sup>W.E. Man. Sect, Cult and Church in Alberta.





and selectivity in membership; and their small, homogenous structure. Other characteristics are: great respect for leaders with charismatic powers; casual indifference or energentic protest against professionalization or hierarchization of the clergy; suspicion of sacramental forms of worship; and an emphasis on individual religious experience. Most sects avoid association with other denominations.

Sociologically, sects are generally viewed as institutions of social and religious protest, as bulwarks of disadvantaged social groups against social power, moral conventions and institutionalized religion. Times of rapid social change usually produce new sects.

(3) A cult is a religious group which look for its basic and peculiar authority outside the Christian tradition. Generally cults accept Christianity, but often only as a half-way station on the road to a greater "truth", a new and additional authority beyond that of Christianity. This new authority may be a revelation from additional "scriptures" or an inspired leader who has gained additional insight into "truth".

Cults tend to blend alien religions or psychological notions with Christian doctrine to obtain an "adequate" or modern faith. For this reason their beliefs are labeled heresies by both the church and the sect, especially the latter.

Cults usually possess a number of common characteristics. Their services are generally lacking in emotional manifestations; dramatic exhortations are eschewed; new members are won by "reasoned" argument, rather than by emotional appeal. Most cults accept the validity of modern science, and in a sense some are post-scientific in outlook and professedly metaphysical. On the other hand, as "metaphysical" bodies, cults are a protest against purely physical science, and their role is to emphasize the value of speculative and mentalistic (mind over body) knowledge.

Whereas the sect is indifferent or opposed to many secular goals, such as worldly prestige, popularity and wealth, the cult often tacitly accepts and comes to terms with such values. Their attitude to the established church is generally one of condescension or enlightened superiority. They consider they have discovered a new truth which the churches will eventually be forced to accept. Instead of righteousness, the cult's goal is harmony, happiness and success. Cult leaders, while often lacking the organizational acumen of church ministers, and the emotional fluidity of sectarian preachers, tend to possess a type of charisma. It is significant that there are many women among cult leaders.





## Churches in Alberta

A more or less complete listing of denominations (churches) in Alberta, including those of other world religions, has been compiled from the Alberta Bureau of Statistics from 1961 Census data (Table 1). This data provides information on church population by denomination, and denominational percentages with respect to the total population. Some denominations are in reality large sects, and smaller sects and cults are relegated to the category listing "other".

Census data also provides estimates of the growth patterns of the major religious groups in Alberta over time (Table 2 and Figure 1).

Even this Census record is not exactly precise. For example, the Greek church, Lutherism and Pentecostal groups have many divisions which are not noted.

Although information available about churches in Alberta and Canada is by no means complete, there are a number of reference works on the subject. Mann's work presents a great variety of material on sects and cults as well as churches in Alberta. Indeed, Mann suggested that the province has an "exceptional history of religious non-conformity, a history without contemporary parallel among the provinces of Canada. Though its sister provinces, Saskatchewan on the east and British Columbia on the west had indeed given birth to a great number of unorthodox religious movements, neither of them had produced such a bewildering mixture of competing religious organizations as Alberta."

Sectarian Movements  
Pervasive

In 1946 there were more than 50 diverse sects and cults within the borders of Alberta. Mann lists some 35 sects and their membership ratings for that year (Table 3). No later statistical data is in evidence for most of these groups unless they appear in Census tables. Similarly, very little historical and developmental information has been collected past 1946. Mann's work covers sectarian movements up to the early 1950's.

A study of 1961 Census data led Harper to conclude that sectarian movements in Alberta are "still pervasive beyond what their numerical strength would indicate", and that "as large a proportion of Albertans still identify themselves as members of sects as did so in 1931 (although) many of these respondents are now urbanites." He also deals particularly with the socio-economic status, age and generation factors of the sect-adherents found in his sample.

Some other research on sectarian movements has been completed. In particular, much of it deals with some of the more esoteric sects, usually focusing on their non-conformity, and disturbances in educational or land access matters caused by this







TABLE I

[illegible]



TABLE 2

CENSUS OF CANADA  
STATISTICS FOR ALBERTA

Total population classified according to religious denomination.

Religion	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961
1 Adventists.....	1,825	3,533	4,213	4,697	4,628	5,187
2 Agnostics.....	671	111	-	-	-	-
3 Anglicans.....	55,628	98,335	112,579	112,279	122,980	156,630
4 Apostolic Brethren.....	-	24	114	328	-	-
5 Atheists.....	-	269	-	-	-	-
6 Baptists.....	19,491	27,223	32,496	32,268	34,720	42,430
7 Believers.....	5	21	11	-	-	-
8 Brethren.....	464	1,103	1,192	1,014	-	1,032
9 Buddhists.....	180	393	366	373	1,552	1,987
10 Catholic Apostolic.....	19	5	2	-	-	-
11 Christadelphians.....	39	83	136	121	-	-
12 Christian Alliance.....	-	-	108	1,372	1,911	4,496
13 Christian Church.....	-	1,438	-	-	-	-
14 Christian Reform.....	-	242	-	-	-	11,152
15 Christians.....	2,360	2,253	2,315	625	-	-
16 Christian Science.....	554	1,932	2,028	1,713	1,835	1,713
17 Church of Christ.....	328	777	1,289	2,103	1,565	2,608
18 Church of God (New Dunker).....	316	595	588	1,392	-	-
19 Confucians.....	515	2,154	1,708	1,799	511	530
20 Congregationalists.....	2,628	3,340	-	-	-	-
21 Deists.....	-	10	-	-	-	-
22 Disciples of Christ.....	516	197	-	-	-	-
23 Doukhobors.....	45	306	296	622	323	3,202
24 Dutch Reform.....	-	680	635	-	-	-
25 Evangelical Association.....	1,032	1,626	2,133	4,163	7,370	6,161
26 Free Thinkers.....	-	197	-	-	-	-
27 Friends.....	309	309	291	166	-	-
28 Gospel People.....	45	65	207	203	-	-
29 Greek Church.....	18,149	35,815	24,187	24,009	115,243	81,613
30 Holiness Movement.....	-	160	204	204	-	-
31 International Bible Students Movement.....	26	627	1,232	1,016	-	-
32 Independents.....	52	18	25	-	-	-
33 Jews.....	1,207	3,185	3,693	4,052	4,626	6,045
34 Labour Church.....	-	38	-	-	-	-
35 Lutherans.....	43,311	59,543	69,411	84,000	87,308	122,520
36 Mennonites (Inc. Hutterites).....	1,614	3,125	8,271	12,177	13,508	15,269
37 Methodists.....	61,844	89,721	966	483	468	453
38 Mission.....	218	454	403	442	-	-
39 Mohammedans.....	48	63	106	-	-	-
40 Moravians.....	-	648	1,302	1,009	-	-
41 Mormons.....	9,753	11,373	13,100	13,100	18,343	25,537
42 New Thought.....	-	4	5	-	-	-
43 Nonconformists.....	134	82	61	-	-	-
44 Nonsectarian.....	235	182	205	283	-	-
45 No Religion.....	7,336	5,083	2,184	-	7,314	-
46 Pagans.....	1,843	479	406	111	203	-
47 Pentecostals.....	2	1,048	3,655	2,401	9,409	15,112
48 People's Church.....	-	9	-	-	-	-
49 Plymouth Brethren.....	234	426	505	464	-	685
50 Presbyterians.....	66,351	120,991	75,048	68,910	55,004	55,337
51 Protestants.....	4,066	3,252	1,931	817	-	-
52 Reformed Church.....	525	761	766	1,100	-	-
53 Roman Catholics.....	62,193	97,439	105,412	130,115	186,312	239,741
54 Salvation Army.....	1,082	1,773	2,104	2,403	2,405	3,319
55 Sikhs and Hindus.....	23	10	27	-	-	-
56 Shintos.....	11	6	1	-	-	-
57 Spiritualists.....	72	210	157	126	-	-
58 Swedenborgian.....	-	43	60	-	-	-
59 Theosophists.....	13	28	49	-	-	-
60 Unenominationalists.....	42	47	-	-	-	-
61 Union Church.....	221	579	-	-	-	-
62 Unitarian.....	311	570	254	238	69	1,261
63 United Brethren in Christ.....	45	1,012	124	32	-	-
64 United Church.....	-	-	176,816	153,684	276,551	415,927
65 Universalists.....	114	76	31	-	-	-
66 Various Sects.....	607	460	491	6,109	18,676	37,584
67 Not Given.....	4,699	1,155	1,023	1,458	-	-

Included also in the 1951 and 1961 census were:

	1951	1961
Jehovah's Witnesses.....	3,493	7,523
Church of the Nazarene.....	-	5,127

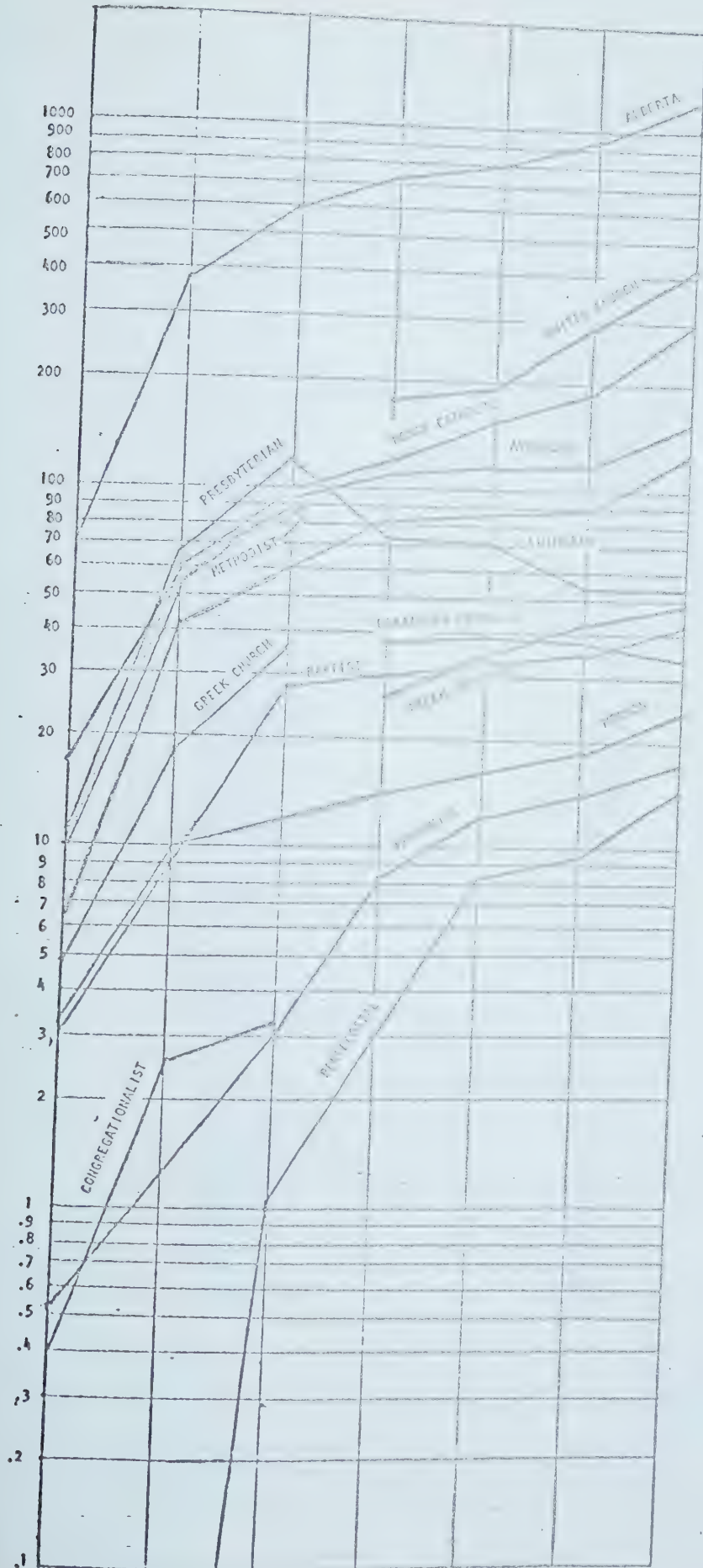
Taken from:

Dominion Bureau of Statistics Census Data (1911-1961)



# THE RELIGIOUS POPULATION OF ALBERTA 1901-1961

THOUSANDS OF PEOPLE



Taken from:

The Distribution of Religious

Groups in Alberta, 1961

by G.A. Lester

FIGURE 1

YEAR





TABLE 3

## MEMBERSHIP IN ALBERTA'S FUNDAMENTALIST SECTS, 1946\*

Name of the sect	Membership in round figures (including children)
Apostolic Church of Pentecost	1,000
Apostolic Faith Mission	100
British Israel	200
Canadian Sunday School Mission	300
Christadelphians	100
Christian and Missionary Alliance	2,700
Christian Church, or Church of Christ	50
Church of God, Anderson, Ind.	300
Church of God, Cleveland, Tenn.	100
Church of the First Century	50
Church of the Nazarene	5,000
Cooneyites	1,000
Disciples of Christ	1,000
Evangelical Church of Pentecost	500
Evangelical Free Church of America	400
Evangelical Mission Covenant	700
Foursquare Gospel	500
Free Methodists	400
Fundamental Baptists	500
Gannan Baptist Church of North America	5,000
Gospel Missions	300
Holiness Movement	500
Jehovah's Witnesses	8,000
Mennonites (not including Hutterites)	2,500
Pentecostal Assemblies of Canada	5,000
Pentecostal Holiness Church	200
Plymouth Brethren, open and exclusive	500
Princip Bible Institute Missions	700
Prophetic Baptist Church and Institute	2,000
Regular Baptists	600
Salvation Army	2,100
Seventh Day Adventists	4,000
Standard Church of America	500
United Evangelical Brethren	4,000
World Alliance of Evangelical and Missionary Churches	600
Total	53,790

## ESTIMATED FOLLOWING OF CULTS IN ALBERTA, 1940

Name of group	
Christian Science	1,600
Church of New Jerusalem	60
Church of Truth (Calgary)	40
Consumers' Movement	50
Divine Science	100
I Am	70
Rosicrucians	100
Spiritualism	200
Theosophy	70
Unity Truth	1,000
	3,455*

Taken from:

V.E. Mann  
Sect. Cult and Church in Alberta.



nonconformity. A real need, however, can be demonstrated for research leading to the acquisition of data on sect and cult development in the province, especially after 1950.

The research on cult development is equally sparse. Mann lists some ten cults existing in Alberta in 1946. While other cults have undoubtedly been developed, there are no records of these, especially in published document-form. Many of these cults, because of their covert nature may well remain hidden.

#### Religions of Native Peoples

A special case in point is the religion or religious beliefs of the Native peoples of Alberta. While most Native people have been missionized and usually have affiliation with one or another of the larger denominations of Christianity, some still follow their traditional belief patterns very closely. Others have developed some sort of syncretic belief system, combining Christianity and the traditional religion. Considerable literature exists on the traditional Native American Indian patterns of belief. Religion, however, differs from group to group among the Native peoples, and at least six distinct Native groups inhabit Alberta.

#### Some Observations

Although cults and sects are far more numerous than the major religious denominations in Alberta, and although as Harper seems to indicate, there is still a proliferation of new groups of this sort emerging, the least amount of statistical data appears in this area. In many instances we are not even aware of the cults' or sects' existence, let alone having specific information on their population figures or participation rates. In contrast, population figures for the better known religious groupings in Alberta have always been relatively simple to obtain from Census data. Participation rates, however, are much more difficult to establish.

The chart showing population figures for Alberta's major religious groupings between 1911 and 1961 could mistakenly be used to demonstrate a general increase in religious participation from the early part of the century to the present time. This sort of generalization, however, breaks down if we do not take into account the fact that the total population is also increasing along with the church population.

In many instances the percentage of the church population has remained the same or actually decreased from 1941 to 1961, if based on the percentage of the total population. This is certainly true of all the major denominations except one -- the Roman Catholic church. The Catholic church alone has substantially increased its size over the last three decades.





This increase, and in fact all of the increase figures derived from the chart, however, are based on the total number of respondents to the Census. Census respondents are requested to reply in terms of religious preference, rather than church attendance. Some of these people may not actually appear at all on church rolls. Furthermore, even if all do appear on the church rolls, very little can be said about their actual rate of church attendance or participation.

As we have noted in the personal religious accounts of people given earlier in this report, some people may consider themselves members of a church which they have not actually attended for more than ten years. A much better account of church participation would be an estimate of attendance based on monetary contributions, a research project unattempted as yet, as far as is known.

#### CHURCH, STATE AND RELIGIOUS TOLERANCE

The North American propensity toward separation of church and state is often stressed in much of the literature on the religious development of this continent. Such a viewpoint is well known and is usually considered a carry-over from the British experience. This notion, however, does not correlate very well with the corporate image presented by some of Canada's larger religious denominations and some sects.

As Harper points out, the term "establishment" has been used to describe the religious institution both in the United States and Canada. Some say this is more than a sociological metaphor, that it refers to the same situation found in many European countries, where there is an "intimate relationship" between church and state. The question then becomes not whether the two are separate, but what is the nature of their relationship? In Europe the common pattern is a direct tax support of the church, while in North America support takes the form of tax exemptions.

In either case it may be said there is a close relationship between church and state. And where such a relationship prevails the tendency is for the church and state to work closely in defense of the status quo.

Similarly, no evidence of strict separation of church and state is apparent if we examine the church-political ties existing during the political development of the Western provinces, and in particular, Alberta. Close cooperation of church and state in the province of Alberta can be demonstrated in both the areas of religious tolerance and religious authority.





The most outstanding examples of the influence of religion upon government appear in questions of religious tolerance. While for the most part Alberta has been a wellspring of religious freedom and tolerance, certain issues, particularly those in the area of education and land tenure, have created frictions concerning Albertans' religion and government.

Educational issues spurred a major debate in the Provincial Legislature in the spring of 1967. Among problems which have been noted as outstanding are the problems of separate schools, problems of educating contrary to religious tenets of a particular religious group, i.e., Mennonite education, and the problem of teaching evolution in the public school system. This latter problem has been somewhat resolved by Weiss' supplement to the Biology 30 text.

Land tenure problems centre predominantly around the Hutterite peoples and have caused an almost equal amount of concern. Several opposing views on the land tenure issue concerning Hutterites have been presented and the issue is far from being resolved.

In all, however, considering the province's great amount of religious diversity, the Government of Alberta has shown and provided for an amazing amount of free expression of religious opinion in the midst of great religious conflict.

#### CONCLUDING NOTE

Preparing a report on the religions in Alberta is a never-ending task. To assume that this or any other attempt at such an effort could be closed off at this point would be somewhat imprudent. In this sense the report has been prepared primarily for the purpose of whetting the reader's appetite.

Much research on Alberta's religions, religious beliefs and religious practices needs yet to be initiated. All too often the study of religion is shelved for other and more pressing needs. Sometimes this occurs because we feel that religion is relatively unimportant, and sometimes it occurs because we feel it is too important to be handled at all.

In either case we are wrong. Religion is a much-neglected area of research which offers a considerable number of research opportunities in Alberta in the future, and a vital human concern.





## RECREATION AND THE ARTS

This section will attempt to bring together available information on recreation and the arts in Alberta. The data is fragmentary and comes from scattered sources. Much of the evidence is subjective, based on the experience of individuals, with little more than bits and pieces of statistical information to support it. Thus, our picture of recreation and the arts in Alberta is necessarily incomplete.<sup>1</sup>

We deal first with the problem of measuring recreation and the arts and then turn to the support of recreation and the arts, to opportunities for their use, and finally to their vulnerability in today's society.

## MEASURING RECREATION AND THE ARTS

What is recreation? What are the arts?

It is impossible to avoid the answer "Almost any activity." For those who provide them -- the artists, dancers, administrators, playground supervisors -- they are ways of earning a living. For the people who use them, they are activities engaged in voluntarily for the pleasure and personal satisfaction received from them.

Any attempt at measuring recreation and the arts should begin with a consideration of four factors. One is the scope of amateur and professional services available. This should include the number of parks, playgrounds, concert halls, theatres, and so on; the number of different pursuits; and their geographic distribution.

Second, trend data on consumers is required: their numbers, their characteristics, and their preferences.

Third, statistics on output are needed -- the number of performances and exhibitions, books written and the like.

Finally, since quality is at least as important as quantity, the measurement of recreation and the arts should not stop at statistics on output. Although quality in the arts is apt to be a subjective judgement, a qualitative analysis of the work is necessary, from the point of view of excellence,

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<sup>1</sup> A more comprehensive survey by Alberta's Department of Youth has been underway for some time. It is to be hoped that the results of that study may fill in some of the gaps in the knowledge of this important area.





variety, originality, creativity, the impact of recreation and the arts on society, and so on. We know that a system of measurement cannot be based on a single set of values. It could not be claimed, for example, that the music of Beethoven is better than that of the Beatles, or that one school of art is good and another is bad. But at this time we simply do not know how to measure quality. Thus, this section concentrates on the first three factors.

## RECREATIONAL AND ARTISTIC SERVICES

Nearly all of the recreational and artistic services available in Alberta can be placed in three broad, but reasonably distinct functional categories -- parks, recreation and cultural activities.

These services are offered by both the public and private sectors of society. Many services and facilities are available only on a commercial, pay-as-you-go basis. Others are provided by voluntary associations such as local neighborhood groups. Public services are offered through city and municipal governments, school boards, post-secondary educational institutions and the federal and provincial governments.

## Parks

### National and provincial parks

Alberta has five national parks, more than any other province in Canada. Three are in the mountain region -- Waterton Lakes, Banff and Jasper. One is in the northeast corner of the province -- Wood Buffalo. The other is located just east of Edmonton in the boreal forest region -- Elk Island. Alberta's national parks cover an area of 20,717 square miles, about 70 per cent of the total acreage of Canada's national parks.

There are 46 provincial parks scattered all over the province -- in the mountains, the foothills, the north, the lake region in the northeast, and the prairies. Two of the 46, Dinosaur and Cypress Hills Provincial Parks, account for more than 60 per cent of the total provincial park area. Both are in the southeastern quarter of the province. In addition to the parks there are 126 forestry campsites and about 250 highway campsites plus numerous other public and private facilities for outdoor recreation.

There is evidence of increasing use of the natural environment for recreational purposes in Alberta (Table 1 and Figure 1). National park visitors increased by over 130 per cent between 1959-60 and 1969-70, and provincial park attendance increased by about 285 per cent between 1960 and 1970.

Analysis of the available data does not suggest significant differences in the rate of increase of the different types of parks, nor does it indicate the impact of major urban areas





TABLE 1

## NATIONAL PARK GATES REGISTRATION - PERSONS

PARK	59/60	60/61	61/62	62/63	63/64	64/65	65/66	66/67	67/68	68/69	69/70
Banff	980,069	1,078,008	1,069,623	1,374,576	1,650,257	1,605,784	1,803,490	2,044,537	2,050,735	2,147,425	2,346,030
Elk Island	196,862	198,277	183,263	176,040	207,914	175,105	197,728	204,206	232,286	277,925	303,604
Jasper	324,857	356,538	346,493	392,987	468,579	430,102	522,658	595,164	652,186	834,748	1,135,558
Waterton Lakes	340,220	349,496	420,865	444,752	441,803	371,258	393,426	487,589	503,729	516,112	472,850
TOTAL	1,842,008	1,982,119	2,000,744	2,306,355	2,768,553	2,822,249	3,917,302	4,231,106	4,438,935	4,775,210	4,363,942
% of to all Canadian National Parks	40%	40.2%	36.4%	33.2%	29.4%	29.2%	31.0%	30.2%	29.5%	29.6%	31%
Change % Change		140,310	37,926	368,111	380,198	136,308	285,053	414,274	107,360	337,274	486,832
				18.2%	15.9%	-4.9%	10.8%	14.2%	3.2%	9.8%	12.9%

Source: Alberta Government, 1980/81 Report.

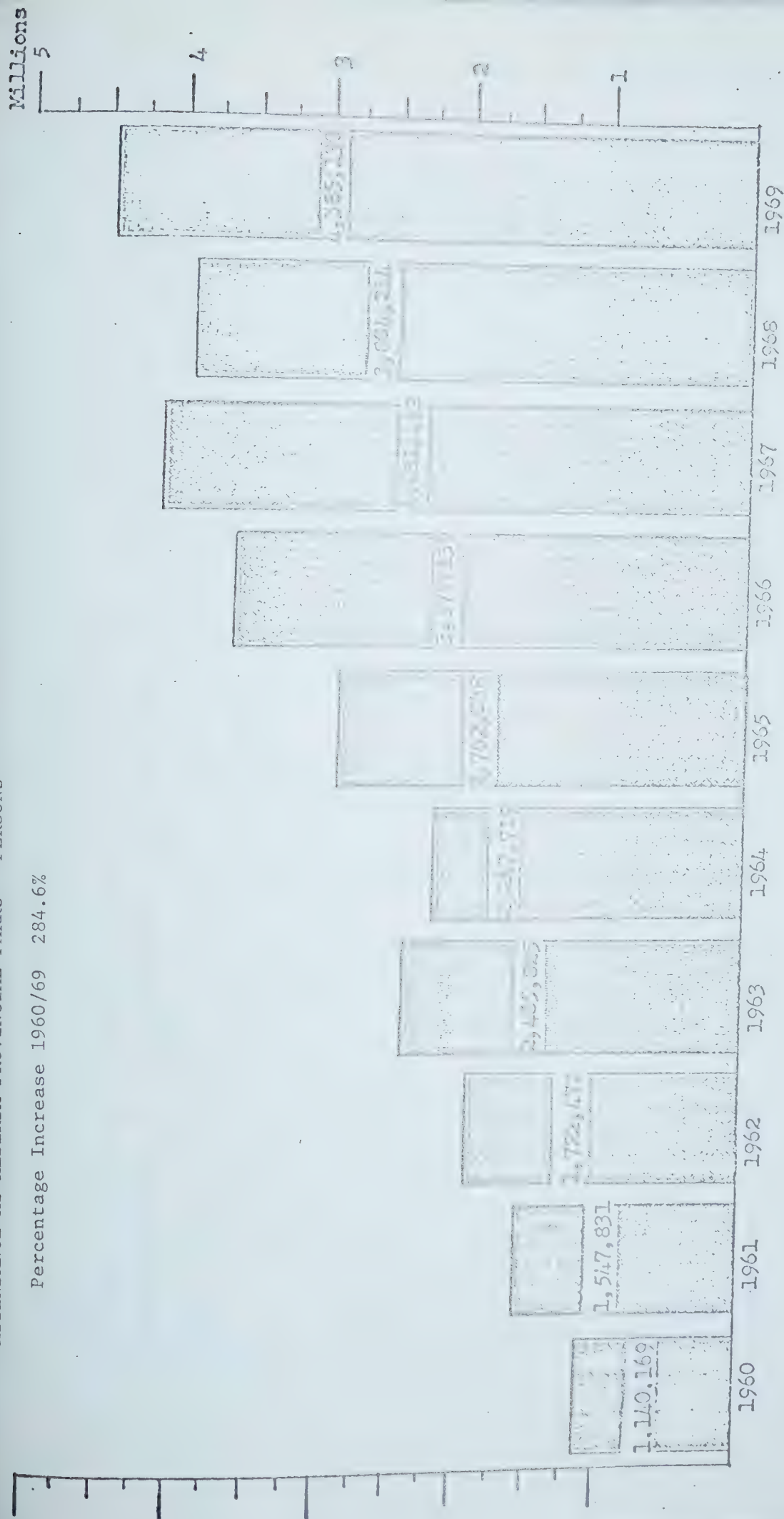




FIGURE 1

ATTENDANCE AT ALBERTA PROVINCIAL PARKS - PERSONS

Percentage Increase 1960/69 284.6%



January 19, 1970

Source: Alberta Government Travel Bureau



TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTION OF PROVINCIAL PARK AREA & PARK VISITORS BY CENSUS DIVISION

CENSUS DIVISION	% OF PARK AREA 1960	% OF PARK AREA 1969	% OF PARK VISITORS 1960	% OF PARK VISITORS 1969
1	48.0%	43.9%	14.1%	15.0%
2	23.0	20.9	15.0	12.1
3	0.9	0.8	3.0	5.5
4	0.3	0.2	1.7	1.6
5	3.2	2.9	4.7	5.3
6	0.4	0.3	0.8	3.0
7	0.4	1.0	6.9	3.8
8	8.1	7.3	29.0	15.7
9	-	2.1	-	3.6
10	2.8	2.7	5.5	13.9
11	0.7	0.6	5.4	6.5
12	1.8	2.3	2.3	3.6
13	4.5	4.1	1.2	2.2
14	0.4	6.2	1.6	1.8
15	5.1	4.6	8.8	4.4



upon specific parks. The limited data available on park use seems to indicate that many people will spend time and money on outdoor recreation, if the opportunities are provided.

serve lands

In addition to parks, more than 60 per cent of the province's total area -- or nearly 156,000 square miles, is publicly owned. All of this territory, whether operated as parkland or not, is open to the public at all times, except in periods of emergency.

ban outdoor  
creation facilities

All Alberta communities have reserve lands, which are used as open spaces, parks, schools and playgrounds. While some of these open spaces are meant only for the quiet appreciation of nature, most offer other services as well, in the form of bandshells, ballparks, or playground equipment.

The open spaces in Alberta communities can be placed in two categories. The first is related to the regulations of the provincial Planning Act. According to the Act, at least ten per cent of the land in any new subdivision or development must be held for reserve purposes.

The other category is more difficult to define. It includes all open spaces not connected with residential districts. For example, Edmonton, Calgary, Red Deer, Medicine Hat and Lethbridge have held much of the land immediately adjacent to the rivers running through them for public use as golf courses, parks, zoos and other community uses.

In comparison to the commonly accepted minimum standard of 10 acres of open space per one thousand persons, Alberta communities have done well. Among the cities, excluding Edmonton, Calgary, Lethbridge and Red Deer, the number of acres of reserve land per 1,000 people was 30.9 in 1968. In towns the figure was 20.3 acres, and in villages it was 35.6 acres.

It should be noted, however, that Alberta regulations concerning reserve lands do not set standards related to the number of people who will live in a subdivision. Instead, they are expressed in terms of land area. If the cities' trend toward high density development continues, Alberta's cities may gradually lose their comparative advantage.

ivate lands

Summer villages and summer cottages are another form of recreation demand upon the natural environment. 27 of 32 summer villages and 3893 1673 of the summer cottages are located in Census divisions 11 and 13, which is a measure of the concentration of these facilities in the Edmonton area.



Unfortunately this information does not indicate the impact of cottaging upon our shorelines or wilderness areas.

cluding note

Data as to outdoor recreation is presently limited to an indication of the supply and to some rough indication of use of specific facilities. The extent and growth of many activities such as snow mobiling is unknown, although surrogates could be developed through analysis of sales of equipment, purchases of licenses, etc. Measures of accessibility to recreation facilities for various subgroups as designated by age, income, ethnicity, urban or rural residency, are not available. No data are as yet available as to the distribution of the origin of the users of outdoor recreation areas nor has the problem of measuring demand of outdoor recreation been tackled.

The data presented are not indicative of the distribution of the benefits derived from the utilization of the natural environment, nor do they provide an image of the state of the environment. However, the data does indicate growth of various activities dependent upon the natural resources.

recreation

The term recreation is often interpreted as referring to some form of physical activity. In a truer sense, however, it is this and much more.

It includes watching or taking part in individual and team athletics; outdoor activities such as hiking, boating, camping, hunting and fishing; all sorts of games from Monopoly to chess, and such quiet activities as reading a book or watching television. Most well-developed recreational programs also include many opportunities for instruction and performance in music, the theatre, dance, arts and crafts.

The number of agencies involved in supporting and sponsoring recreational activities is as great as the number of forms recreation can take. Activities in the creative arts -- in literature, music, dance, drama, arts and crafts -- illustrate the point. Most of the arts, but especially literature, music, drama and art, now form part of the school curriculum at all levels. Regular school programs are reinforced by extra-curricular programs in the arts such as drama and music.

Universities, independent colleges of art, and the Northern and Southern Institutes of Technology offer courses leading to various degrees, diplomas and certificates in the arts, and also a great variety of extension or evening classes for adults and children.







Private agencies, including amateur and professional theatre groups and music societies, encourage participation in the arts through the sponsorship of open workshops, visits to schools and other institutions. Federal agencies such as the Canada Council provide assistance to artists or to scholars working in the arts. Provincial agencies such as the Department of Youth sponsor a wide variety of activities, from research through public workshops dealing with the arts. And programs offered by parks and recreation authorities in the cities are probably the most diverse of all. Courses dealing with everything from children's theatre to cake and food decorating to "creative stitchery" to income tax know-how (the greatest art?) are offered.

Data illustrating the scope of these services are provided in the section on Learning and Education.

Although this list seems extensive, it should be noted that it is incomplete and that the creative arts are recent arrivals on the recreational scene and are less developed than other forms of recreation. A comparable outline of amateur athletics, for example, would be much longer and much more complex.

#### Cultural Affairs

Everyone has his own definition of the word "culture". To some it implies refinement and sophistication in manners and arts. Others write about "highbrow" and "lowbrow", or "refined", "mediocre" and "brutal" cultures. There are "advanced" and "primitive" cultures. Still others see culture in every aspect of life, in cooking, dress, and crafts, as well as in drama, music, art, dance, and literature.

This section concentrates almost exclusively on those cultural forms which are popularly described as "well-developed", "sophisticated" or "highbrow". Yet it must be remembered that this approach is highly restrictive, and that "highbrow" forms of art are only a small part, perhaps not even the most important part of the total.

Culture in Alberta has become a very complicated, multi-million dollar industry. The industry is made up of a great variety of firms -- publishers, symphony societies, theatre groups, art galleries and so on. It is becoming more dependent on universities, governments, foundations and voluntary associations.

In 1970 there were 46 fine arts organizations registered with Alberta's Provincial Secretary. Of these, 30 were based in Edmonton, five in Calgary, two in Lethbridge and Red Deer, and the balance distributed over the rest of the province.





Public financial assistance to the arts has risen steadily in recent years. And although the arts receive most of their revenues from private sources through donations and subscriptions, public funds are becoming increasingly important. In Canada the pattern of public support is set by the Canada Council, whose subsidies to the arts amounted to over \$9,000,000 in 1969-70.

While comparable data is not available for Alberta, the provincial government does make both direct and indirect contributions to the arts (Table 3). To a great extent direct contributions seem to be break-even grants to help agencies meet their deficits, or grants for special performances. Perhaps the two most important indirect contributions are given as subsidies to the Jubilee Auditoriums in Edmonton and Calgary.

Table 3  
Appropriations to the Arts, Museums and Archives,  
Alberta, 1960-61 to 1969-70

	<u>1960-61</u>	<u>1965-66</u>	<u>1969-70</u>
Cultural Development Branch	420,250	585,650	1,067,910
Centennial Branch	--	523,110	--
Provincial Museum	--	203,770	630,990
Restoration of Historic Sites	24,930	21,600	40,140
Glenbow Alberta Institute	--	30,005	135,000
Provincial Archives	--	43,760	83,370
Auditorium, Edmonton	76,390	86,750	128,290
Auditorium, Calgary	74,300	83,170	120,400

Source: Public Accounts of Alberta

Perhaps because of their concentration in the private sector, all agencies for the performing arts are located in urban areas, two thirds of them in Edmonton. Several of these agencies, including the Citadel Theatre and the Alberta Ballet Company go on tour, but mainly to centres where they can attract a sufficiently large audience.

Public support for other cultural agencies, notably museums, archives and art galleries, has been much more extensive. Using the definition of the Canadian Museum Association, which pulls museums, zoos, planetariums and art galleries together, there are 86 museums in Alberta, including three zoos, two planetariums and eight public art galleries.





Appropriations for museums and archives in the province are shown in Table 3.

Finally there are the libraries of the province. These include one regional library, 70 municipal libraries and 88 community libraries, according to the Alberta Library Board. These libraries serve three-quarters of Alberta's population. One-quarter has no access to a local library, and there is no library service in 16 towns, 111 villages and an unknown number of hamlets.

Many of these centres, in spite of the best intentions, cannot support really good standards of service, and the results are often mediocre. Leisure reading and recreational books are abundant, but reference and informational material is often lacking or non-existent.

The mass media

There are many theories about the effect of the mass media on forms of recreation and patterns of culture. They differ widely. Some insist that the mass media are the antithesis of culture and can only result in the deterioration of cultural standards. Others suggest that the media remove many barriers blocking access to art, and that they have created new art forms such as films.

Whatever one's position, however, the following statistics make it difficult to deny the potential impact of the mass media. The residents of Alberta are served by seven daily and over ninety weekly newspapers. The province has 27 radio stations and 9 television stations with 34 rebroadcast stations. Of the province's 410,000 households, nearly 400,000 have radios and more than 370,000 have television sets.

PATTERNS OF USE

During their early history in North America, the parks, recreation and arts movements developed independently. Parks and the arts catered to the well-to-do, while the recreation movement, which began in the latter half of the nineteenth century, was originally designed to serve the city poor.

By the time Alberta was established, many of the problems inherent in patterns of development elsewhere had been resolved. As a result, parks, recreational and cultural services in Alberta have not been planned with distinctions of social class in mind.







## Unequal Opportunities

It may not be true, however, that all persons make equal use of these services or have equal access to them. Underneath the statistics which show greatly increased use of all recreational facilities, there are many indications that access to these services is not distributed equally among all groups in the population. Unfortunately, these indications are not sufficiently well documented in Alberta.

A 1964 Dominion Bureau of Statistics survey of patterns of expenditure by urban families shows that family income (Table 4), family type (Table 5), and age of the family head (Table 6) significantly influence all expenditures, including those on recreation.

The poor are largely cut out from opportunities in the private sector which are made available commercially. In many respects this is simply a matter of money -- they cannot afford costly recreational services.

Opportunities are also affected by age, with people past middle age being largely cut off from the mainstream of recreational services. Many forms of recreation are too strenuous for them. Others are too trivial, or too oriented to youth to hold their interest. And, of course, the problem becomes more complicated when people are retired and live on fixed incomes.

Sex can also be a factor. Many of the most expensive, most highly organized forms of recreation are geared to men and boys. Many sports like hockey, football, lacrosse, baseball and even track and field, are almost restricted to men.

Figure 2 and Table 7 indicate differences in the amount of recreational and cultural services available. It seems certain that there are differences of kind and quality as well. Drama, art, music and dance have come to be almost exclusively urban, even in the schools. Cities offer a wider variety of parks and recreational services than rural communities.

## Four Factors in Use

Apart from the question of who has access to recreational and cultural services, there is the question, "What determines the extent to which services are used, no matter who the users might be?" The data, although fragmentary and drawn from interviews, suggests that four factors are especially significant.

The matter of awareness is of primary importance. The greater number of people aware that services exist, the more those services will be used. In 1968-69, for example, 66,800 people visited the Luxton Museum in Kamff. One year later, after extensive promotion which included placing 100,000 pamphlets in motels, the attendance figure jumped to 91,900.





Table 4: Patterns of Family Expenditure by Income: All Families and Individuals, Eleven Cities, 1964

	All Classes	Under \$2,500	\$2500- 2999	\$3000- 3499	\$3500- 3999	\$4000- 4499	\$4500- 4999	\$5000- 5499	\$5500- 5999	\$6000- 6999	\$7000- 7999	\$8000- 9999	\$10,000 and over
Average dollar expenditure:													
Recreation	206	34	77	85	110	110	112	110	107	101	276	292	487
Reading	42	20	25	30	33	30	36	38	36	33	48	56	70
Tobacco and alcoholic beverages	255	70	146	187	191	195	188	192	193	184	311	321	487
Percentage distribution:													
Recreation	3.2	1.8	2.5	2.8	3.3	3.3	3.5	3.3	3.1	3.1	3.6	3.4	3.7
Reading	.7	1.0	.8	.8	.8	.7	.8	.8	.8	.7	.6	.6	.6
Tobacco and alcoholic beverages	4.0	3.6	4.7	5.1	4.9	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.5	4.0	3.7	3.4

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics: Urban Family Expenditures, 1964



Patterns of Family Expenditure by Family Type: 1958-1959, Urban Family Expenditures, 1958

	One Adult	Two Adults	Three Adults	Four Adults	One Adult and one or more children	Two adults and one child	Two adults and two children	Two adults and three children	Two adults and four children	Two adults and five or more children	Three adults and one child	Three adults and two or more children	Other
Family Expenditure:													
Food	96	163	237	258	180	208	230	240	250	277	275	264	190
Housing	31	44	45	51	28	30	32	34	36	37	56	43	10
Medical and alcoholic beverages	144	244	319	321	190	200	200	200	200	210	327	327	400
Average Distribution:													
Food	2.8	3.0	3.1	2.7	2.8	3.1	3.0	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.2	3.3
Housing	.9	.8	.6	.6	.6	.6	.7	.5	.5	.5	.6	.5	.1
Medical and alcoholic beverage	4.1	4.5	4.1	4.0	3.8	3.1	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.3	3.5	4.0	4.6

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics: Urban Family Expenditures, 1958.



Table 6: Patterns of Family Expenditure by Age of Head: All Families and Individuals, Eleven Cities, 1964

	All Classes	Under 25 years	25-34 years	35-44 years	45-54 years	55-59 years	60-64 years	65-69 years	70-74 years	75 years or over
Average dollar expenditure:										
Recreation	206	190	245	241	281	199	132	70	93	64
Feeding	42	30	41	48	55	45	38	33	37	30
Tobacco and alcoholic beverages	255	201	278	342	411	301	210	190	122	89
Percentage distribution:										
Recreation	3.2	4.1	3.7	3.5	3.8	3.4	2.3	1.7	2.2	2.0
Feeding	.7	.6	.6	.7	.8	.7	.7	.8	.9	1.0
Tobacco and alcoholic beverages	4.0	4.3	4.2	4.0	4.0	3.8	3.6	4.5	2.9	2.8

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics: Urban Family Expenditures, 1968.

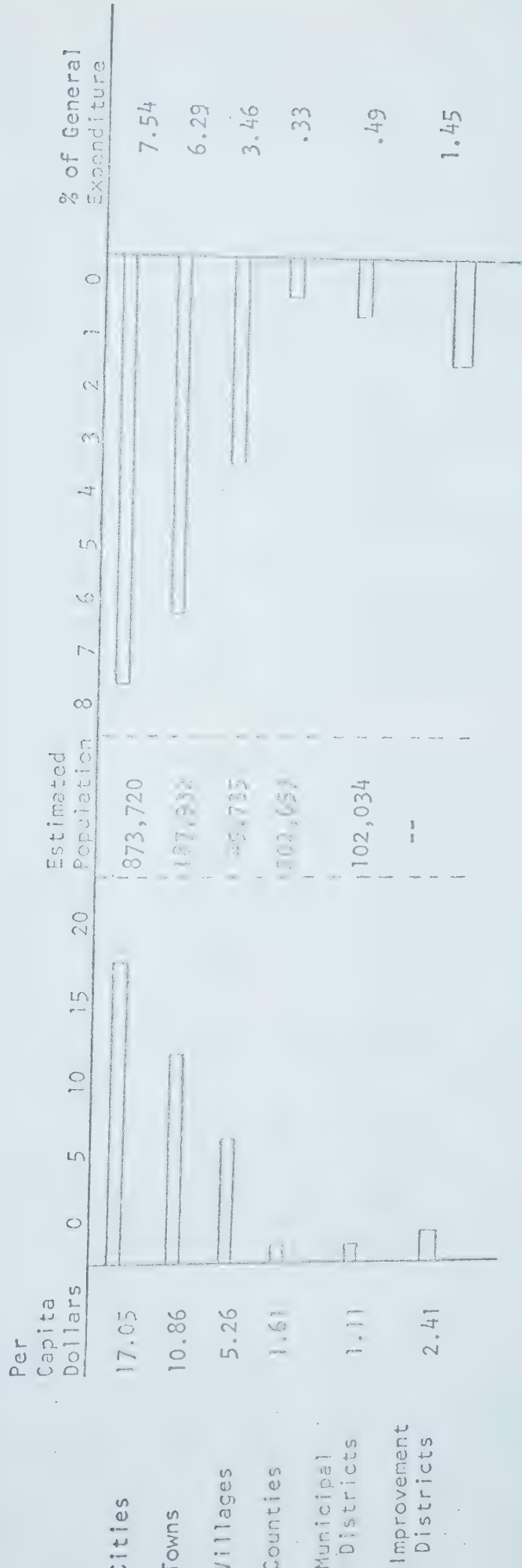




FIGURE 2

MUNICIPAL EXPENDITURES ON RECREATION AND COMMUNITY SERVICES

ALBERTA, 1968



Sources: Department of Municipal Affairs Annual Report, 1968.



TABLE 7

EXPENDITURES ON RECREATION AND COMMUNITY SERVICES,  
ALBERTA, 1964-1968

NAME	YEAR	RECREATION AND COMMUNITY SERVICES
CITIES	1964	7,466,685
	1965	8,744,330
	1966	10,669,217
	1967	12,651,269
	1968	14,900,260
TOWNS	1964	1,112,574
	1965	1,205,922
	1966	1,519,466
	1967	1,877,905
	1968	2,041,295
VILLAGES	1964	155,411
	1965	163,691
	1966	186,585
	1967	246,264
	1968	240,575
MUNICIPAL DISTRICTS	1964	33,634
	1965	52,463
	1966	105,180
	1967	90,175
	1968	112,968
COUNTIES	1964	94,276
	1965	167,493
	1966	233,736
	1967	262,106
	1968	326,195



Second, the nature and location of facilities is important. In Edmonton, the old art gallery was visited by about 30,000 people each year; the new gallery attracts about 200,000. In Calgary the attendance figure for the Glenbow Museum was 56,300 in 1970; the Horse Hall of Fame and Aquarium, which has a new building and ample parking, drew nearly 300,000 people.

Public interest and demand is a third factor, closely related to the first two. In 1967, Canada's Centennial year, there was a great upsurge of interest in national and local history and Canadian art. This followed extensive advertising, many centennial projects all over the province and a general heightening of national feeling.

The importance of public interest and demand can be illustrated in another way. In the section on Learning and Education it was shown that Albertans are being attracted back to school for adult education and recreation classes in large numbers. Each year's attendance is breaking records set the year before. The number and variety of courses available each year has grown, and each year virtually all classes are filled.

The final factor has to do with restrictions on the numbers of persons who can take part in various activities. Some adult education courses have been organized into levels, requiring participants to complete one level successfully before they are permitted to enroll in the next. In other cases the number of openings are strictly limited and applicants are admitted on a first-come-first-served basis. And, in still other cases, enrollment is restricted to persons referred by another agency.

Governments at all levels and agencies in the private sector have committed themselves to providing recreational and cultural services. What, in fact, do these commitments mean for the form and administration of these services?

While these commitments have been made, recreation is seldom, if ever, treated as a top-priority, essential service. Any time a budget cut or financial restraint is required in vital city services like welfare, education and public safety, recreational services come under sharp pressure and are among the first to be cut.

Obviously, the private side of the recreation industry, and in particular, commercial recreational and cultural services, are also affected by the state of the economy. People, like governments, are inclined to treat recreation as a "nonessential" service, and often sharply curtail their spending on travel, art, the theatre and so on.







The recreation industry is particularly vulnerable to changes in public taste and shifts in demands for services. Television, for example, at one time threatened virtually every other part of the recreation industry. Attendance at movie theatres, hockey and football games dropped, and participation in sports of all kinds declined, family recreation habits changed almost overnight, generally becoming more passive.

At present, however, there is a great deal of evidence which suggests that other forms of recreation are becoming stronger and more in demand. Attendance at professional football games, hockey games and movies is climbing steadily; the number of participants in all forms of recreation is increasing rapidly; sports which at one time were seldom played in Alberta, like soccer and lacrosse, are becoming popular; more people spend more time travelling and, increasingly, are visiting places once thought to be too distant.

In the recreation field private services seem to be more open to changes than those services offered by the government. This is a result of the way the market place operates, with changing tastes being reinforced by advertising, costs, planned obsolescence, the replacement of old products with new ones, and the creation of fads and fashions.

Finally, recreational services are vulnerable to changes in philosophy -- in ideas about the purpose and functions of recreation. In the beginning, the main motive of the recreation movement was to combat the ill-effects of the city slum, to build character, to prevent juvenile delinquency. It was not long, however, before the recreation movement lost this sense of social purpose and became basically a middle-class service, leaving the poor to religious groups, voluntary social agencies, and themselves. At the present time, there are signs that recreational services will once again be guided by a sense of purpose. Recreation is taking on more of a cultural-educational function, with the idea that "living is learning".

#### SUMMARY AND CONCLUDING COMMENT

In summary, the following points have emerged from an examination of recreation and the arts in Alberta:

- \* The demand for recreational services has risen greatly in recent years. As technology brings us closer to the threshold of a leisure society, the demand will likely increase.
- \* Responsibility for recreation and the arts is distributed widely. Services are not well coordinated, and the situation seems to be overly complex.
- \* Access to recreational and cultural services is not distributed equally among all segments of the population. Age, sex, income, and place of residence determine present patterns of use.





- \* Recreational services are vulnerable to financial pressures, changes in public taste and shifts in philosophy.
- \* No good measures of the quality of recreational and cultural services are available.

According to most forecasts, the future holds the prospect of a leisure society, with an evergrowing number of people having shorter work weeks, longer vacations, more frequent leaves of absence, later employment, and earlier retirement. If these forecasts are realized, how will this leisure time be used? Will it contribute to the individual's pleasure and be made meaningful and satisfying in the context of his own life? How will it fit into the general pattern of our individual and social well-being?



## THE ENVIRONMENT

Everywhere, and particularly in Alberta, economic development and social welfare are closely tied to the management of the environment and the production of raw materials. Throughout history a central social and economic problem has been making a living from the natural environment.

Recently, this age-old problem has taken on new dimensions -- a concern for the quality of the environment and for the ways in which man's social and economic affairs affects that quality.

In this section, we are concerned with the physical surroundings of Alberta's citizens.

At the most general level we begin with the concept of environmental adaptation. It is not a sharp concept. It can refer to the results of careful planning or to the accumulated unplanned consequence of simple living. It can mean resistance to the environment or a simple acceptance as it exists. It can mean bending one's will to suit the environment or developing technologies to control it. It can suggest radical action or simple maintenance of the status quo.

More specifically, we will focus on: (a) the natural environment, indicators of environmental degradation, and the public agencies established to maintain the quality of the environment; (b) the structure and process of urbanization; and (c) the urban condition.

Available data related to these three concerns are far from complete, and they deal more with quantitative than with qualitative matters. The issue of the quality of the environment is emotionally charged. The degradation of the environment, pollution, is difficult to define and, hence, to measure. In short, with respect to the quality of the environment there is "a considerable degree of subjective knowledge and a very substantial level of objective ignorance." Many questions, perhaps even the most important questions, are still to be answered.

## THE NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Today there is an increasing public concern and a wide-spread belief that the environment is deteriorating. More and more concern is expressed about air and water pollution, wildlife habitat, pesticides, natural conditions, strip mining, preservation of natural and recreational areas, oil spills, and other qualitative aspects of the natural environment.

In spite of all the concern, there is little information about the state of the environment. Man's activity has some impact upon the condition of air, water and land. This may range from depletion of non-renewable resources, to destruction of renewable resources, to conflicts between alternate demands upon a resource.







Pollution, the source of many conflicts, can be thought of as those consequences of an activity which in some way impair the environment for other activities. Pollution is said to be partially attributable to our standard of living in that the level of standard is related to the development of natural resources; to market prices which do not reflect the true total costs of a good and thus priorities and choices are distorted such that some preferences and values are foregone; and to our attitude towards the future which influences the weight given to present consumption as against the postponement of benefits.

Examples of various environmental problems are often brought to the public attention, but as we have no comprehensive evaluation of what is happening, we can only look at a partial list of conflicts most often associated with particular activities.

In agriculture, for example, certain of the chemicals used leave residues which build up through the food chain. Many of these chemicals find their way to the waterways through surface drainage. Nitrates and phosphates contribute to excess supplies of nutrients in water bodies, causing increased growth of aquatic plants and impairing water quality. The grazing of domestic animals in forests destroys the winter range of wildlife; land clearing reduces wildlife habitats, leading to the depredation of crops by wildlife.

In forestry, the harvesting of trees may lead to watershed damage because of increased water run-off. Intensified forestry practices may lead to the deterioration of recreational values and to the destruction of wildlife habitat. Pulp mills can cause severe air and water pollution.

In water resource development, the transfer of water is of considerable importance, because the majority of population lives in the southern half of the province, but almost 90 per cent of the water flow is in the northward flowing streams. Water transfer disrupts habitat which supports fish, water fowl, fur and game animals along existing and newly-created waterways. It disrupts source of income for residents, particularly those dependent upon wildlife, along existing and newly created waterways. It can contribute to erosion along existing waterways because of the declining vegetation.

National parks represent a basic conflict in goals. Although parks have been set aside for all time to preserve representative samples of the country's terrain, at the same time recreation is regarded as a major resource use. Preservation and use are often difficult to reconcile, particularly when there is a demand for "contrived or urban" type recreation facilities.





These examples and others which come to mind readily (coal extraction by strip mining and oil and gas development) should be enough to illustrate a basic point -- natural resources are subject to conflicting demands, and their use for one purpose can eliminate their usefulness for other purposes.

Many agencies, institutions, and Acts have been created to deal with various aspects of resource management and control. These include, among many others, the following.

The Division of Environmental Health Services, which administers the program of pollution control for air, water and soil, as set out by the Public Health Act, in liaison with the Oil and Gas Conservation Board, the Department of Agriculture, the Department of Mines and Minerals, and the Department of Lands and Forests.

The Oil and Gas Conservation Board, which administers matters pertaining to drilling, production and conservation of oil and gas reserves. It is also committed to "control pollution above, at or below the surface in the drilling of wells and in operations for the production of oil, gas and crude bitumen" and in other operations over which the board has jurisdiction.

The Environment Conservation Authority, which is designed to review government policies and programs on matters pertaining to environment conservation. It may enquire into any matter pertaining to environmental conservation, but appears to have no powers of enforcement.

The Alberta Pollution Control Advisory Council, which was formed to consider all aspects of the problems of air, water and soil pollution in Alberta and to review pollution and control programs and make recommendations to the government through the Minister of Health. Being an advisory council, the body has no enforcement powers.

Although these agencies and others not mentioned are responsible for resource management and control, are they able to deal with conflicts over the use of resources and to assess the changing condition of the environment? Unfortunately their terms of reference tend to be focused on a narrow range of conditions, whereas conditions demanding public attention tend to result from the conflicts between various activities.

If the natural environment is viewed as a system in which action in one part affects other parts, there is a need for policies reflecting the need for greater integration of environmental management and control.

Some of the basic problems in any set of policies concerned with environmental quality are (1) perception of the problem, (2) establishment of standards (3) monitoring and measurement (4) enforcement, and (5) public support.



As far as perception is concerned, what are considered to be major problems today were unrecognized a short time ago. And many things of which we are now completely unaware could be major problems tomorrow. Baseline data is not collected until its need is recognized.

In the setting of quality standards, definitions are highly subjective, and a trade-off between economic, social and aesthetic values, depends on who will pay and who will benefit.

In summary, it can safely be said that with environmental quality there is "a considerable degree of subjective knowledge and a very substantial level of objective ignorance." Questions still to be answered include: What research is required into the consequences of resource development? What additional costs and benefits do existing agencies need to take into account? Can coordination be increased in response to the interaction between different activities? What local, provincial, federal agencies, institutions or legislation is required?

URBANIZATION:  
REORGANIZING  
ALBERTA AROUND  
THE CITIES

The natural environment is only one aspect of the world we live in. Equally, if not more important is the man-made environment, our homes and communities.

In Alberta, the dominant feature of the man-made environment is the urban situation. It is currently estimated that more than 70 per cent of all Albertans live in urban areas, that is, in centers with 1,000 or more persons.

Problems of the urban situation are at two levels: those connected with the structure and process of urbanization, and those concerned with the urban condition itself. In this part of this section we are concerned only with structures and processes. The urban condition is discussed in the following part of this section.

In keeping with the rest of North America, Alberta has for several decades experienced a shift from rural to urban living. In proportion to the total population, more people are living in the cities and fewer are living in the rural areas.

This transition, commonly referred to as urbanization, is viewed with alarm by many people. Others point to the advantages of urban life, such as increased productivity, increased leisure time, increased economic, social and recreational opportunities.

Whatever one's position, urbanization is a subject of considerable controversy, attributable in part to the ambiguity of the term.





There are two different concepts of the processes of urbanization: one which describes the incorporation of a growing proportion of the total population into urban settlements and the other which describes the incorporation of people into urban social structures and life styles. Both of these concepts can be illustrated by the Alberta experience. But this section will concentrate on the former concept, both because most of the available data relates to it and because it is a matter of great public concern in the province. The term urban is defined as in the 1966 Census of Canada -- cities, towns, and villages with populations of 1,000 persons or more.

#### Population Distribution

The density of population areas depends to a large extent on social and economic activities. As these activities change in nature or structure, so do the spatial patterns of population.

This is particularly true in Alberta with regard to the agricultural industry, which, historically, has strongly influenced the settlement pattern of the province. The original pattern was one of uniform distribution of the farm population and small urban centers, offering agricultural service centres closely integrated with the agricultural economy.

Mechanization and improved technology in agriculture has resulted in spectacular productivity increases -- and major changes in the population pattern. Between 1951 and 1966 the average farm size increased by 33 per cent, the amount of agricultural land increased by about 22 per cent and yet the farm population declined by 18 per cent. Consolidation of farms and improved transportation have altered the relationship between agricultural regions and their local trade centers, in terms of goods and services demanded. Agricultural service centers are changing in function, disappearing in some cases and growing rapidly in others. It is also necessary to recognize that rural population decline can be traced to not only "push" variables (i.e., involuntary moves made because of economic necessity) but also to "pull" variables (voluntary moves made because of the "bright lights", higher wages, desired life style, and so on).

A comparison of data for Canada and Alberta reveals that although the Canadian population as a whole is more concentrated in urban areas, the rate of growth for Alberta's urban population is significantly greater than that of the rest of Canada (Table 1). In fact, Alberta's rate of change between 1955 and 1966 -- amounting to 58.4 per cent -- exceeded that of the nearest province by about 14 per cent. Conversely, the rural population declined both absolutely and by proportion of the population.







TABLE 1  
POPULATION BY PLACE OF RESIDENCE

	1951		1956		1961		1966		PERCENTAGE CHANGE
	Population	%	Population	%	Population	%	Population	%	
CANADA									1951- 1956- 1961- 1956- 1956 1961 1966 1966
Rural	(3)		5,365,936	33.4	5,537,857	30.4	15,288,121	26.4	
Urban	(3)		10,714,855	66.6	12,700,390	69.6	14,726,759	73.6	3.2 -4.5 -1.5
									18.5 16.0 37.4
Rural	189,408	35.1	189,408	43.3	189,408	43.3	189,408	43.3	0.1 0.1 0.5
Farm	339,957	15.7	339,957	30.2	339,957	30.2	339,957	30.2	-12.7 -2.9 -15.2
Non-Farm	1,455,711	17.1	1,455,711	65.7	1,455,711	65.7	1,455,711	65.7	11.0 -11.2 11.1
Urban									
> 100,000	2		639,824	39.6	639,824	39.6	639,824	39.6	33.6 19.5 32.4
30,000-99,999			2,451,461	40.2	2,451,461	40.2	2,451,461	40.2	34.9 17.5 57.8
10,000-29,999	2		62,626	5.6	62,626	5.6	62,626	5.6	4.9
5,000- 9,999			52,996	4.7	52,996	4.7	52,996	4.7	-2.3 <sup>4</sup> 43.2 0.8
2,500- 4,999									62.3 55.4 153.2
1,000- 2,499									4.6 <sup>4</sup> -14.5 -10.6

- (1) Includes Beverly & Jasper Place in Edmonton; Bowness & Forest Lawn in Calgary  
 (2) Includes Beverly & Jasper Place in Edmonton; Bowness, Forest Lawn & Montgomery in Calgary  
 (3) Change in definition of Urban, therefore data is not comparable  
 (4) Changes are deceptive in that urban centers switch size category over the time interval



Although almost all urban centers gained slightly -- from 17 to 20 per cent -- an increasing proportion of the population in all Census divisions became concentrated in fewer and larger centers (Table 2). By 1966, 51.1 per cent of the province's population was located in only three centers. Calgary and Edmonton had the largest and third largest percentage increases, respectively, of all metropolitan regions in Canada.

In summary, it can be said that the process of urbanization in Alberta has resulted in a number of spatial characteristics:

- \* An increasing proportion of the population is located in fewer but larger urban centers;
- \* There has been a decline in farm population, in certain urban centers and regions, both absolutely and in terms of proportionate share of the population;
- \* There is a disparity of regional rates of population growth and an increasing concentration in specific regions;
- \* An increasing proportion of the population is located within urban centers in all regions;
- \* Added to this is the decline in population suffered by some urban centers and regions, particularly villages and unincorporated areas.

#### Resource Towns

The development and use of natural resources, the raw material for primary industries, has had an influence on the spatial distribution of urban centers in the province. Resource towns, often dependent on a single resource industry, have grown up for the extraction and production of both oil and coal. The growth of these resource towns is independent of the general process of urbanization and, for this reason, merits separate discussion.

Many resource communities, particularly those dependent on coal mining, suffered sharp population declines or disappeared completely during the coal industry slump of the Fifties. Some government assistance under the Coal Mines Rehabilitation Act was provided for those who had to move to find other employment due to mine closures.

Today many of the resource communities are "boom" towns. And the rate of urban development associated with the development stages of resource towns often exceeds the ability of local municipalities to pay.

This resulted in the enactment of the New Towns Act in 1956 and its successor in 1969. This legislation permits municipalities which qualify to issue debentures and spend money





TABLE 2

## CONCENTRATION IN URBAN AREAS IN CENSUS DIVISIONS

CENSUS DIVISIONS	URBAN CENTER	1951		1956		1961		1966	
		% of Pop. of C.D.	Total	% of Pop. of C.D.	Total	% of Pop. of C.D.	Total	% of Pop. of C.D.	Total
1	Medicine Hat >1000	57.8 5.4	63.2	60.4 8.7	69.2	62.6 8.5	71.1	65.8 8.5	74.3
2	Lethbridge >1000	33.9 10.3	44.2	39.3 14.3	53.6	42.6 14.1	56.7	45.0 14.3	61.3
3	>1000	31.6		37.1		41.1		46.3	
4	>1000	13.4		18.3		21.8		40.9	
5	Drumheller >1000	8.7 5.2	12.0	6.9 6.0	12.9	7.7 7.3	15.0	9.9 0.2	18.1
6	Calgary >1000	72.7 2.5	78.2	76.4 6.2	82.6	78.5 10.0	89.4	88.6 2.3	91.4
7	>1000	11.0		15.0		22.1		37.3	
8	Red Deer >1000	11.8 12.8	26.0	19.2	30.4	25.4 18.3	44.3	31.2 14.2	43.6
9	>1000	40.9		47.3		50.3		57.1	
10	Camrose Lloydminster >1000	5.8 2.4 6.0	14.2	8.1 3.5 6.7	18.3	9.9 4.2 9.1	23.2	11.9 5.4 12.1	29.4
11	Edmonton Wetaskiwin >1000	67.8 1.6 6.5	75.9	69.9 1.4 9.8	81.1	68.4 1.3 13.5	83.2	79.2 1.3 4.8	85.3
12	>1000	6.4		13.2		20.8		25.5	
13	>1000	10.1		11.3		14.8		17.8	
14	>1000	13.5		16.1		40.4		51.0	
15	Grande Prairie >1000	4.3 6.3	10.6	9.0 8.7	17.7	10.9 11.8	22.7	12.9 21.4	34.3
PROVINCE			47.9		56.6		63.3		69.8

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics





without reference to the existing assessment of tax levy. Public funds cover required capital expenditures on sewers, water and streets, while private funds and other forms of public investment provide housing and necessary commercial facilities. When the New Town is considered to be financially solvent, it is reclassified, a local elected council takes over and the settlement, dependent on its status, operates under the Town and Village Act of the appropriate Municipal Act.

Before a New Town may be converted to another status, all special loans and advances must be repaid to the province, which usually consists of converting loans to provincial debentures.

#### Demographic Characteristics

Regional differences in the characteristics of Alberta's citizens can be of significance for the distribution of various social services and for the potential for growth or decline of urban centers.

In spite of the rural-urban shift in population distribution and the greatly increased population between 1951-1966, the general pattern of age structure in urban and non-urban areas has remained largely unchanged. Figure 1 roughly illustrates the distributions.

Age groups 0-14 tend to be above the provincial average in all places except cities over 100,000, which tend to conform closely to the norm. The large urban centres have over-representations in age groups making up the labor force, and in particular in the younger members, those 20 to about 40. Large cities absorb the younger labor force and age groups over 65 tend to be over-represented in both rural non-farm and in the small urban centers. This may reflect both the retirement of farm persons to their immediate urban center and those persons who were too established in smaller centers to participate in the general shift to the larger centers.

Table 4 illustrates great differences between the age distributions of farm operators and of the provincial labor force. The impact of rural to urban migration is apparent in the under-representation of the under-40 age group of farm operators. In 1961, over 50 per cent of the farmers were over 45 years of age, as compared to about 30 per cent for the labor force as a whole. The data would also suggest that these differentials are increasing.

The data in Table 5 reveal major but somewhat stable differentials in the distribution of families by number of children by place of residence. It should be noted, however, that there has been a general shift to larger families with a decline in the proportion of 0-, 1-, and 2-children families





TABLE 3

NEW TOWNS INCORPORATED UNDER THE NEW TOWNS ACT  
SINCE ITS INCEPTION (March 29, 1956)

NAME	FUNCTION	DATE OF INCORPORATION	CHANGE OF STATUS & DATE	POPULATION		STATEMENT OF ADVANCES				LOCATION
				AT INCORPORATION	1970	TOTAL LOANS	REPAYMENT OF ADVANCES	CONVERSION TO DEBENTURE	NEW TOWN ADVANCE C/S OCT 7/70	
Cynthia	Oil	June 1, 1956	Dissolved May 1, 1959	65	60 (est)	-	-	-	-	County 31 (I.D. 77 in 1956)
Drayton Valley	Oil	June 1, 1956	Town Feb 1, 1957	1000 (est)	5478	NA	NA	NA	NA	County 31 (I.D. 77 in 1956)
Port McMurray	Tar Sands	June 30, 1956		1303	6132	1,726,500.00	-	-	1,726,500.00	I.D. 18
Fox Creek	Oil	July 19, 1964		200 (est)	876	687,800.00	47,831.80	-	639,968.19	I.D. 16
Grande Cache	Coal	Sept 1, 1966		NIL	2075	3,112,510.00	-	-	3,112,510.00	I.D. 16
High Level	Communications	June 1, 1965		754	2006	837,130.46	-	-	837,130.46	I.D. 23
Hinton	Pulp Mill	Nov 1, 1956	Town Dec 29, 1958	500 (est)	4468	541,176.00	-	541,776.00	-	I.D. 24
Lodgepole	Hydro-Electricity	June 1, 1956	Dissolved March 1, 1970	500 (est)	200 (est)	71,050.00	5,050.60	37,000.00	-	County 31 (I.D. 77 in 1956)
Rainbow Lake	Oil	Sept 1, 1966		NIL	608	2,058,684.12	-	-	2,058,684.12	I.D. 23
St. Albert	Dormitory of City of Edmonton	Jan 1, 1957	Town July 3, 1962	1850	10530	1,000,000.00	-	1,000,000.00	-	N.D. 90
Swan Hills	Oil	Sept 1, 1959	Town Jan 1, 1967	NIL	1264	795,000.00	-	795,000.00	-	I.D. 17
Whitecourt	Pulp Mill	Aug 15, 1961		1500	2894	525,960.00	187,809.00	338,151.00	-	I.D. 15
						11,355,850.58	269,690.81	2,711,327.00	3,374,782.77	



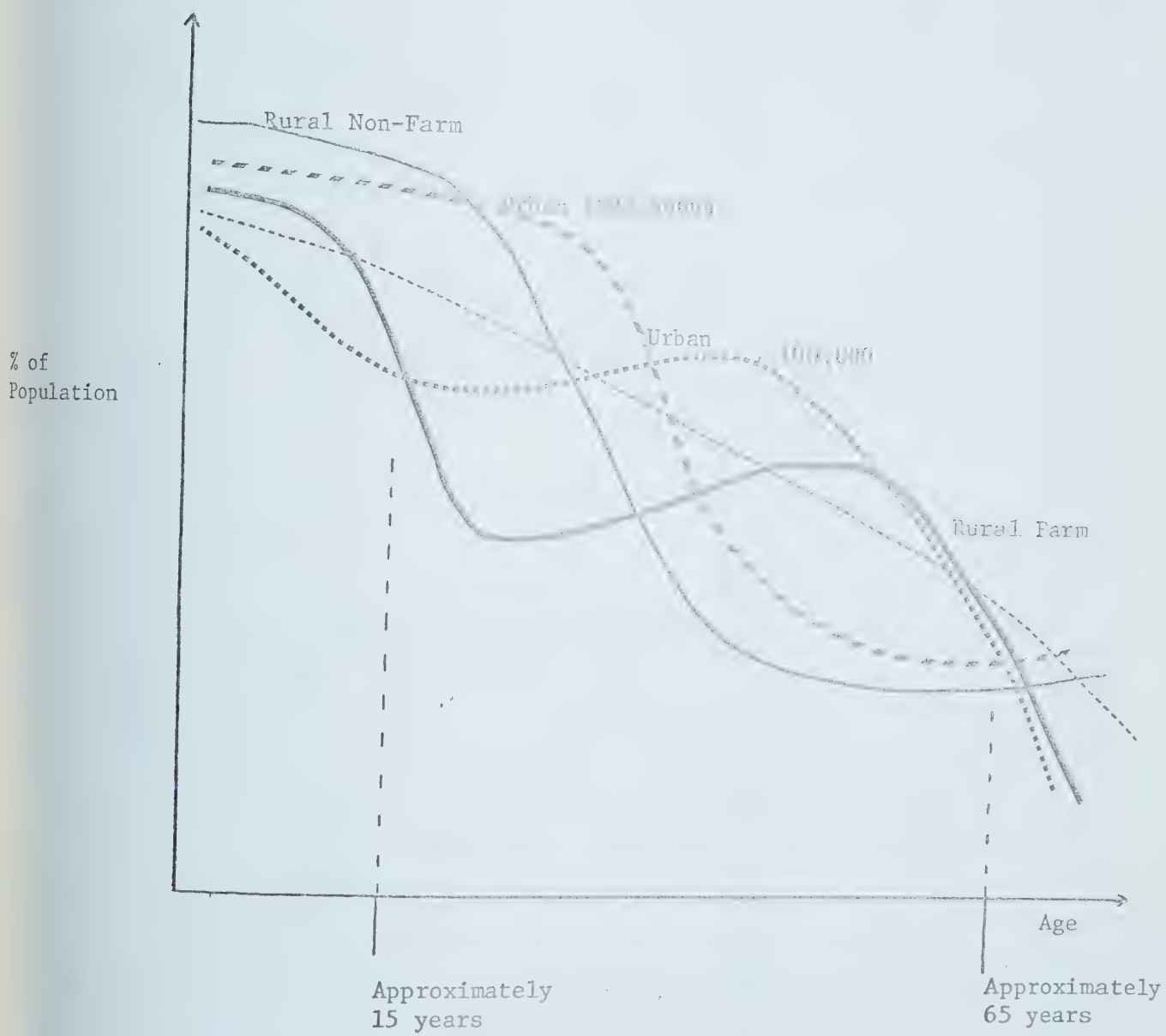


FIGURE I









TABLE 5  
% DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES  
BY NUMBER OF CHILDREN

		NUMBER OF CHILDREN								Average Number of Children
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6-8	9+	No. % Chang
1951										
ALBERTA		29.6	23.9	22.3	12.7	6.5	3.8	2.7	.4	1.7
RURAL	Farm	24.4	20.9	21.3	14.5	8.0	3.7	3.7	.9	2.0
	Non-Farm	27.5	22.7	22.5	13.1	6.8	3.5	3.4	.5	1.8
URBAN	100,000	34.3	26.7	22.8	10.0	5.7	3.6	.9	.1	1.3
	1000-99999	32.0	23.0	22.9	11.2	5.1	3.9	3.1	.3	1.5
1961										
ALBERTA		27.4	19.9	22.3	14.8	8.2	3.8	3.1	.4	1.8 5.9%
RURAL	Farm	25.0	17.6	19.6	14.4	10.4	5.0	5.4	1.0	2.2 10.0%
	Non-Farm	27.0	18.0	20.4	16.6	9.1	4.7	5.0	1.0	2.1 16.7%
URBAN	100,000	29.5	22.0	23.7	14.2	6.7	3.5	1.5	.1	1.7 30.8%
	1000-99999	29.4	19.6	22.3	14.6	7.9	3.5	2.4	.3	1.8 20.0%
1966										
ALBERTA		27.4	18.8	21.3	15.2	9.9	4.1	3.6	.5	1.9 5.6%
RURAL	Farm	25.7	16.6	18.8	15.5	10.5	5.9	3.9	1.1	2.1 4.6%
	Non-Farm	29.5	16.7	18.0	13.6	9.1	5.2	6.3	1.5	2.2 4.7%
URBAN	100,000	27.0	20.2	23.2	15.6	8.2	3.4	2.3	.2	1.8 5.9%
	1000-99999	29.0	18.3	20.9	15.2	9.1	4.2	3.1	.2	1.9 5.7%

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics



and an increase in most other categories. For the period presented, the greatest increase in average size of family occurred in centers over 100,000 persons, namely Calgary and Edmonton. As the average size of farm family actually declined from 1961 to 1966, probably a reflection of the age structure of the farm population, the non-farm family became the largest average family. The reader is referred to the section on the family for a comprehensive discussion of change occurring in family structures, and so on.

Tables 6 and 7 indicate the geographic mobility of the population. Unfortunately data are available only for the period 1951 to 1961. As pointed out by D.B.S. the data only reflect "differences between places of residence, of a particular individual" and "do not show multiple moves nor return migration which took place" during the interval. Bearing in mind these qualifications, it can be seen on Table 6 that 48.8 per cent of the 1961 provincial population had moved between 1956 and 1961 as compared to 42.4 per cent for all Canadians. Table 5 also reveals that in all cases over 80 per cent of the moves were intra-provincial. Of those who moved 53.5 per cent remained in the same municipality which compares to 59.7 per cent for Canada. Thus, Albertans tended to be slightly more mobile and to move greater distances than other Canadians.

In terms of age, although those 20 to 29 years of age were the most mobile age group, they, along with the 15 to 19 age group, were the least likely to remain in the same municipality. It can be seen that the probability of migrating out of ones own municipality declined with age.

When the data are broken down in terms of place of residence in 1961, it is apparent that the above patterns tend to hold but that substantially higher numbers of the 1961 urban population had moved between 1956 and 1961 than for any of the other categories. The number of moves within the same municipality was lowest for the non-farm group, suggesting movements over greater distances. The farm population tended to be the least mobile. The departure of the younger members of the labor force from both the farm and non-farm categories is reflected in that the percentage of movers tends to peak at, and the movement within the same municipality tends to bottom out at the 20-29 year age group.

Table 7 illustrates the dominance of the urban centers as the destination of migrants. (Unfortunately, the census reports did not categorize the urban centers by population size). More than 50 per cent of the farm and urban migrants moved to urban centers, and although 55.6 per cent of the total non-farm migrants had urban destinations, this fell just below



TABLE 6  
INTRAPROVINCIAL MIGRATION (1956-61) BY TYPE OF MOVE

RESIDENCE 1961	AGE 1961	TOTAL MOVES	% OF POPULATION MOVED	% OF MOVES FROM DIFFERENT MUNICIPALITY WITHIN PROVINCE
FARM	Total	57,917	21.1	35.8
	5-14	16,894	20.2	34.0
	15-19	5,489	20.8	36.2
	20-24	5,678	20.8	42.3
	25-29	5,980	21.2	37.8
	30-34	5,450	21.2	37.8
	35-44	8,648	21.2	34.0
	45-64	8,052	21.2	34.2
	65+	1,776	11.8	33.0
NON-FARM	Total	79,810	21.1	44.6
	5-14	23,476	21.2	42.4
	15-19	5,898	21.2	41.6
	20-24	8,144	21.2	49.8
	25-29	9,278	21.2	49.2
	30-34	7,875	21.2	46.2
	35-44	10,621	21.2	42.6
	45-64	10,110	21.2	44.3
	65+	4,458	21.2	43.4
URBAN	Total	398,704	21.1	27.6
	5-14	98,642	21.2	27.6
	15-19	28,379	21.2	34.7
	20-24	43,947	21.2	33.6
	25-29	50,670	21.2	26.0
	30-34	46,027	21.2	24.6
	35-44	61,672	21.2	24.5
	45-64	52,052	21.2	25.9
	65+	17,315	21.2	26.3
ALBERTA	Total	536,431	21.1	31.6
	5-14	139,012	21.2	31.3
	15-19	39,676	21.2	36.0
	20-24	37,719	21.2	36.8
	25-29	65,928	21.2	30.3
	30-34	59,352	21.2	28.7
	35-44	80,941	21.2	27.9
	45-64	70,214	21.2	29.5
	65+	23,529	21.2	30.1

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics





TABLE 7  
INTROPROVINCIAL MIGRATION (1956-61)  
BY PLACE OF RESIDENCE

	AGE 1961	TOTAL INTRA- PROVINCIAL MIGRANTS	RESIDENCE 1961		
			FARM %	NON-FARM %	URBAN %
	Total	30,760	8.9	71.0	58.1
FARM	5-14	8,409	5.5	47.3	53.7
	15-19	2,905	10.7	57.9	63.4
	20-24	3,577	10.6	53.1	64.3
	25-29	3,256	11.2	48.7	53.2
	30-34	2,873	8.9	51.7	54.0
	35-44	4,122	8.1	51.0	58.7
	45-64	4,404	6.8	51.6	61.6
	65+	1,314	2.3	50.2	61.6
	Total	28,238	22.7	77.7	55.6
NON-FARM	5-14	6,205	31.1	35.3	43.1
	15-19	3,504	20.4	33.5	65.7
	20-24	4,727	15.2	31.7	66.1
	25-29	2,248	24.5	26.1	49.1
	30-34	1,643	26.2	26.8	47.0
	35-44	2,888	30.5	20.0	48.6
	45-64	4,466	19.6	19.8	60.6
	65+	2,557	9.6	27.0	63.4
	Total	99,933	10.8	51.8	71.4
URBAN	5-14	27,501	10.1	11.0	71.8
	15-19	6,865	12.5	16.0	71.5
	20-24	11,772	10.0	17.6	72.0
	25-29	13,804	9.2	13.4	72.0
	30-34	11,861	10.4	17.3	72.3
	35-44	14,622	11.0	16.1	72.9
	45-65	10,831	13.8	18.7	67.5
	65+	2,677	10.5	24.7	64.8

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics





50 per cent for some age groups. It should be pointed out, however, that the predominant movement was urban to urban as this number, 71,350 persons, exceeded the total farm and non-farm migrants.

Urban destinations dominated for the age group 20-24, for both the farm and non-farm migrant. This movement contributes to the concentration of the younger members of the labor force in the larger urban centers, as was discussed earlier. That few located in non-farm locations (centers less than 1,000) may be partially explained by the lack of employment opportunities in these centers. Although the urban category cannot be disaggregated by size, the movement of the older farm population to urban centers is reflected in the increased movement to non-farms and urban destinations for those over 65 years of age.

Few of the urban population changed category of residence between 1956 and 1961, and unfortunately the data do not distinguish between inter-urban and intra-urban movements. The movement to farm and non-farm destinations indicated for those over 45 may reflect the suburbanization occurring around cities.

In summary, the general picture of demographic variables shows these characteristics in Alberta:

- \* The fastest growing metropolitan areas in Canada;
- \* A disproportionate share of population in metropolitan areas;
- \* A concentration of younger members of the labor force in large centers;
- \* Non-farm and small urban centers have above provincial norm share of 0 to 14 age group;
- \* An aging of farm operators and residents of smaller centers;
- \* An increase in average family size, the most rapid being experienced by the large urban centers;
- \* A large proportion of the population is mobile;
- \* Migration movements are predominantly inter- or intra-urban;
- \* The destination of all migrants tends to be urban.



What are the implications of these characteristics for the delivery of social services? What pressures does the rapid growth place on provision of social services? How does the selectivity of migratory process affect the economic viability of the place of origin, the place of destination? Is the emigrating population the better educated, the skilled? Is the immigrating population less skilled, the less educated? How does mobility influence participation in local government? These questions are illustrative of those being asked about the consequences of urbanization as it is being experienced in the province.

#### Some Concerns

The settlement pattern and demographic trends noted above are matters of public concern on several counts. On the economic level there is the question of regional stagnation and the cost of services in the cities. Social considerations include the exodus of young people to the large cities and the increasing social problems there. Political considerations consist of the inequities in rural and urban representation and the structure and responsibilities of local governments. And physical aspects include the deterioration of the environment, the declining urban centers and the ecological consequence of large urban centers.

The city itself is a focus of concern because it is thought to produce or aggravate many problems. A number of undesirable conditions and situations are most often observed in large urban centers, such as pollution problems, heavy concentrations of welfare recipients, housing shortages, traffic congestion, high cost of municipal services and deviant behavior characteristics.

But these problems are not confined to cities, although they are called urban problems because they are more visible in urban areas. Many so-called urban problems are really national problems; it is noticeable that the federal government is becoming increasingly involved with them.

The problems of cities tend to overlap problems of regional development. Thus the emigration of young people from the declining areas because of lack of employment opportunities restricts future development of the declining areas.

The underdevelopment of areas in the province raises both research and policy questions -- a need for understanding the changes that are occurring, a need to assess the conditions relevant for growth and decline; a need to design programs to cope with problems associated with decline, and a need for programs to stimulate regional development.





Although the consequences of urbanization can be seen, and concern expressed about the problems involved, the process of urbanization and the resultant man-made environments are largely unstudied.

## THE URBAN CONDITION

As the population becomes increasingly urban, the urban environment becomes more and more a matter of public concern. As many of the so-called urban problems -- such as poverty, physical and mental well-being, and so on -- will be dealt with elsewhere in this report, this section will look only at some of the physical and financial aspects of the urban environment. Unfortunately there is little quantitative or qualitative information as to the condition of our environment.

Qualitative measures are necessarily subjective, and are subject to considerable variation in interpretation by individuals. Many are appalled by the sterility and monotony of the typical suburban development in our cities, but for many others this environment is ideal. Such questions will not be of concern in this section, which will be limited to some of the areas of concern for which quantitative data is available.

## Housing

The housing situation is said to be unsatisfactory and to be getting worse, particularly for the renter, the poor and the young married. In recent years a new dimension has been added to the inadequate housing among the low-income, as an increasing number of middle-income families are unable to afford the rising costs of shelter.

Housing costs have risen faster than other costs, with the 1969 Shelter Cost Index at 133.1 compared to 125.5 for the Total Consumer Price Index, using 1961 as base 100. In 1970 the average single family house of 1,000 square feet in Edmonton cost \$23,000, which CMHC officials suggested required a minimum wage of \$9,600. This would exclude 60 to 65 per cent of the families in the city.

Reliable and up-to-date statistics on the housing situation in Alberta are hard to find, the last available inventory being that of the 1961 census (Table 8).

Neither of the two government agencies responsible for housing, the federal government's Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation, of the Alberta Housing Corporation maintain an inventory of housing stock.

More recent available data is limited to accounts of new construction. Obviously most of the new housing is built in urban centers, and most of this in the two metropolitan areas.







TABLE 8  
OCCUPIED DWELLINGS, 1961

LOCALITY		TOTAL	AVERAGE NUMBER OF PERSONS PER ROOM	HOUSEHOLDS WITH MORE THAN ONE PERSON PER ROOM (%)	DWELLING IN NEED OF MAJOR REPAIR (%)
CANADA		4,554,493	.74	16.5	5.6
RURAL	Farm	449,553	.73	20.2	9.4
	Non-Farm	824,427	.77	22.6	9.4
URBAN	100,000	2,089,070	.72	13.0	3.3
	1000-99,999	1,191,398	NA	17.0	5.7
ALBERTA		344,204	.76	17.5	7.8
RURAL	Farm	68,209	.81	24.4	13.5
	Non-Farm	52,632	.85	25.7	12.4
URBAN	100,000	164,824	.72	12.4	3.4
	1000-99,999	69,144	NA	16.6	7.5
CENSUS DIVISIONS	1	10,821	.70	13.7	6.6
	2	21,639	.74	17.0	8.2
	3	7,152	.76	22.1	9.4
	4	4,053	.73	17.5	11.1
	5	9,997	.72	15.0	8.4
	6	88,802	.70	11.3	4.2
	7	10,798	.73	16.7	9.6
	8	19,226	.76	19.6	9.3
	9	5,291	.76	19.6	11.6
	10	18,819	.77	20.3	10.5
	11	106,982	.75	16.0	5.2
	12	10,729	1.01	36.4	19.4
	13	11,987	.34	24.9	17.9
	14	4,903	.91	30.8	17.0
	15	18,610	.97	33.9	15.7
Metropolitan Areas					
Calgary		78,396	.70	10.4	3.5
City Proper		71,587	.68	8.9	3.4
Fringe Areas		6,809	.38	27.1	4.7
Edmonton		89,003	.74	14.5	4.5
City Proper		76,269	.72	12.6	4.4
Fringe Areas		12,734	.38	25.7	5.2

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics



Unfortunately data is not available in a form to assess changes that have occurred in those locations with the housing conditions in 1961. Nor is it possible to determine the housing condition of those areas receiving most of the new construction, particularly as these are locations of rapid population growth.

In spite of the inadequacy of available data, housing is acknowledged to be a critical issue. To stimulate activity in low-income housing, CMHC introduced the \$200,000,000 innovative program, which accounted for eight per cent of dwelling starts. Incentives were granted for innovations in land assembly and technology to reduce housing costs. CMHC, by means of a sliding subsidy scale dependent on the applicant's income, reduced interest rates. In Alberta, the program was largely limited to the cities of Calgary and Edmonton.

Before existing programs are expanded or new programs are introduced an inventory of present housing should be made. In addition, a number of questions should be answered: How effective has it been in improving housing services for low-income families? Will it tend to increase or decrease the total housing supply? What effect will it have on other housing markets? Will it increase the range of choice of housing for low-income families?

Housing forms the major land use in our environment, thus housing signifies more than a structure, it includes accessibility to schools, parks, transportation, public facilities, shopping and employment.

Public policy must recognize the variety of interdependent but uncoordinated decisions and decision-makers in the residential development process. Although physical standards for residential development are set by public policy, a number of questions need to be asked:

Do present policies accommodate the desired range of life styles? Do they accommodate changing life styles? Do they permit the desired range of housing types? Do residential developments provide the demanded choice of services and amenities? Do present policies foster particular forms of development? How does taxation policy influence the rate, type and location of housing?

Pollution

Pollution of the environment may be said to occur when accumulations of wastes and residues in the elements of the ecosystem, water, air and land are such as to impair or to harm human welfare or activities. These wastes and residues, the by-products of man's activities, are attributable to our technologies, to inadequacies of pricing mechanisms, and to the level of the standard of living, among other things.





As long as the level of these wastes does not exceed the self-renewing capability of the natural ecological system or the limits of man's tolerance, pollution does not become a matter of general public concern. However the increasing concentration of people and their associated activities within urban centers increases the possibility that these limits will be exceeded. What is the situation in Alberta urban centers?

#### Water pollution

The Division of Environmental Health Services is responsible for examining rivers and lakes to determine the extent of pollution and for controlling the amount of industrial and municipal waste released into them. The program includes regular sampling of all major rivers in the province and the municipal and industrial waste waters released to them. Samples are evaluated in terms of criteria set out in the Public Health Act. The following findings are reported in the Summary Reports of the River Pollution Surveys for 1969-70, for those rivers upon which are located major urban centers:

- (1) Oldman River - Serious oxygen depletion downstream from Taber as a result of municipal and sugar refinery wastes; odor values extremely high as compared to previous years; phosphate concentration may present problems; biochemical oxygen demand exceeds limit below Taber; a marked increase in bacteriological constituents below Lethbridge.
- (2) North Saskatchewan River - Amonia-nitrogen and phosphorous remained above Water Quality Criteria; high values of bacteriological constituents are being monitored downstream from Edmonton; episodes of high odors due to unauthorized discharges of odorous materials; good control of biochemical oxygen demand loadings resulted in a healthy river condition with respect to dissolved oxygen.
- (3) South Saskatchewan River - A healthy river condition with respect to dissolved oxygen; phosphates remained above criteria.
- (4) Red Deer River - Serious oxygen depletion downstream from Red Deer; excessive limits of phosphates; significant amounts of bacteriological constituents below both Red Deer and Drumheller.
- (5) Bow River - high concentration of phenols, nitrogen compounds and phosphates were observed below Calgary; odor of a chemical nature was observed on three occasions; high loading of biochemical oxygen demand observed below Calgary.

At the end of 1969, all cities and towns with a population greater than 3,000 had sewerage systems, with 74.6 per cent of the population being serviced by a municipal sewerage system. But as can be seen from the above statistics, the existence of treatment systems has little to do with the quality of the rivers if the plants are not effective.





## Air pollution

In the metropolitan areas of Calgary and Edmonton, dustfall, sulphur dioxide and hydrogen sulphide (by exposure cylinders) total hydrocarbons, total sulfation, suspended particulate matter, oxides of nitrogen and total oxidants are measured. The following are statements from the Air Pollution Summaries for Calgary and Edmonton, 1968-69:

(1) Edmonton - All pollutant measurements indicated there is not a general pollution problem in the city of Edmonton; most pollutant averages have increased; significant yearly average increases were recorded by total oxidants and total hydrocarbons; total dustfall and hydrogen sulphide yearly averages decreased and the yearly total oxides of nitrogen concentration did not change; the average recorded inversion increased during the report period, perhaps this could account for many of the increased averages; the only pollutant which will require scrutiny during the coming sampling period is the total oxidant.

(2) Calgary - Three of the measured pollutants (total sulfation, fluorides and oxidant) recorded their highest average in 1969; total dustfall recorded its lowest average in 1969; hydrogen sulfide dropped to approximately its 1965 level; the pollutant levels were found to be well within acceptable levels.

These summary reports would suggest that air pollution is not yet a serious problem in either Calgary or Edmonton. However, it should be noted that while in large cities air pollution appears to be mainly attributable to industry and traffic, instruments are not in operation which can check given air quality conditions for carbon monoxide. There is a need for a method of monitoring the active hydrocarbon species, so that results can be correlated with meteorological data of the specific time and location.

## Solid waste disposal

Residential and industrial solid wastes have always created disposal problems, particularly in densely populated areas. Although the nature and quality of solid wastes are constantly changing with new material and new packaging methods, current methods of disposal are limited to dumping and incineration. Dumping, a major method of disposal, is a potential source of air, water and land pollution.

In Alberta the responsibility for soil pollution and industrial waste disposal is vested in the Minister of Health by means of the Public Health Act. Three standards of land fills have been established: modified land fills to serve populations of less than 5,000 people where compaction is required and cover is to be applied to prevent health hazards; sanitary land fill (1) to serve populations of less than 20,000 where compaction is required and cover is to be applied three times a week, and sanitary land fill (2) to serve populations of more than 20,000, where compaction is required and cover is to be applied daily.





No information is available as to violations of these regulations, but indications are that they are considerable. Many questions are raised as to dumping as a method of coping with solid waste for large urban centers. It is estimated that dumping requires about one acre per year per 10,000 inhabitants. Can we afford to allocate land resources on this scale? Is land available in these quantities and in the right locations? How may land fill areas be utilized? What are compatible land uses? Will we continue to tolerate the aesthetic consequences of land fill? How do we measure the resultant soil damage and the water pollution due to seepage?

#### Noise pollution

Although noise pollution is often said to have many ill effects on health, little research has been done to confirm the effects. Unwanted noise is said to interfere with speech communication, to increase fatigue, although tolerance varies from person to person.

Alberta has regulations designed to protect the worker from excessive noise. And noise is becoming recognized as an environmental pollutant. How is the community being adversely affected? Perhaps this can only be answered with more research.

Although the province does not have controls on environmental noise pollution, two examples of control measures may be cited. On January 1, 1971, the City of Edmonton implemented a bylaw "to prohibit, eliminate or abate noise within the City of Edmonton". It is interesting to note that although this bylaw covers motor vehicles and noise generated by activities on private property, it does not cover noise generated by aircraft.

A number of questions may be raised about the enforcement of such a bylaw. How will transient violators be detected? How will the combined noises of many sources be measured and evaluated? Should noise controls be limited to the incidence of the noise, or should they concern the prohibition of its occurrence?

Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation has restrictions on the location of residential accommodation with respect to airports and runways. These are enforced by refusing mortgage applications within designated areas.

In tackling noise pollution, can local regulations be effective to control the incidence, or does it require provincial or federal legislation to control the production of noise creating objects.





## Conclusions

A number of questions may be raised on the collecting and dissemination of pollution data, and the enforcement of present legislations:

Are monitoring devices located in the right places? Are we monitoring for the critical pollutants? Are the monitoring devices sensitive to short run and long run concentrations of pollutants?

What baseline data is available to assess change over time? How many existing standards can be modified to encompass other than physical characteristics? Do token fines assessed large corporations dissipate public support? What is the effect on public support of misrepresentation of pollution control or pollution concern by industrial interests?

## Municipal Finance

Of some concern these days is the question of how municipalities are going to finance increasing demands for the public provision of goods and services.

Two factors are providing difficulties: the escalating costs of such goods and services, and the limitations of municipal revenues. The debate focuses on the services for which local government should be responsible, and on possible forms of revenue and cost sharing with upper levels of government.

Much of the concern is about the huge investments required for urban infrastructure, such as transportation facilities and utilities in the larger cities. Expenditures per capita for Calgary and Edmonton exceed those of smaller centers, and in fact these costs decline with the size. However, it should be noted that the rate of increase of per capita costs was lower for these two cities than for all other urban cities.

Two trends in terms of revenue are noticeable. Taxation declines in terms of its proportional share of total revenues, although it may increase in absolute terms. Secondly, in general, as taxation declines, contributions, grants and subsidies increase, both in absolute terms and as a proportion of the total revenue.

Some are led to the conclusion that because of escalating costs of services there is a need for public policy to restrict the growth of cities. They argue that this would be less trouble than rearranging the responsibilities of three levels of government.

It seems obvious that more data is required on the optimum size of cities. And that three general areas of inquiry should be explored, including: the allocation of responsibilities of the three levels of government; the impact of urban size on municipal finance, and the existing institutions responsible for municipal finance.



## Summary

Problems of the urban situation are at two levels: those connected with the structure and processes of urbanization; and those concerned with the urban condition itself.

This has led to some confusion as to the nature of urban problems. There is a tendency to define problems of the urban condition as a consequence of the spatial settlement pattern, and to focus on present day issues, rather than long term forces contributing to particular situations.

However, if urbanization is viewed as the evolution of a different society, many of the problems may be seen as the results of a society in transition.

Basically the urban situation is made up of several interacting but uncoordinated factors:

\* Formal mechanisms, like the three levels of government. The federal government, through redistributive, allocative and stabilization programs, such as CMHC and the Department of Regional Expansion may influence urban environment. The provincial government, through redistributive and allocative activities influences local development through the School Foundation Program, Municipal Finance Corporation, Local Authorities Board, Alberta Housing Corporation and the Provincial Planning Board. And the local government through its planning facilities acts as primarily a management function.

\* Informal mechanisms in the private sector. These include private companies which, through location and investment decisions, influence growth rates, employment activities and the tax base of urban centers. And individuals, whose location decisions are influenced by all the preceding factors, may determine the demographic characteristics.

It may be said that the quality of the urban condition is but a part of the overall process of urbanization. Unfortunately at this time, because of ill-defined problems and the lack of information and understanding, the development of urban environmental indicators has yet to be undertaken.

## CONCLUDING NOTE

This section has attempted to outline some of the issues and questions requiring research which follow from concerns about the natural environment, the process of urbanization, and the present urban condition, and to indicate the limitations and gaps in available data.

In conclusion, a number of summary comments can be made. First, available data is far from adequate. In many important areas, there is virtually no data base to inform policy debate and formulation. Most data are indicators of physical condition







only and do not seem to be directly useful to matters of social welfare. Second, in the midst of the growing public concern over the quality of the environment, we should not lose sight of the basic importance of natural resources to economic development. Finally, much research and development needs to be done both on improved methods for managing the environment and on better ways of understanding the effects of man's social and economic affairs on the environment.

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Few people are able to ignore the pervasive influence of the family, whatever their marital status. Single people tend to retain their kinship ties or are systematically subjected to the couple-oriented and family-oriented society in their everyday associations.

The form or structure of the family differs widely from society to society. In Canada families are required to be monogamous (one spouse) rather than polygamous (more than one spouse). The typical Canadian family is nuclear (family head, spouse and their children) rather than extended (one or more grandparents or unrelated persons living together with a nuclear family) or single parent (widowed or divorced). The average family has two or three children, although families may vary from childless to more than a dozen children.

While the structure of the family may be typical, the distribution of families differs widely even in Alberta. Different types and sizes of families live in differing types of dwellings, different locations in the province and different locations in the cities. Ethnic origin, income, religion, occupation and education offer insight into the distribution of various family types and family life styles. The age of marriage for males and females, marriage and divorce rates, illegitimacy rates, length of marriage, child bearing period, remarriage rates, intermarriage patterns and maternal employment varies significantly among families in Alberta.

Material in this report will include a summary of demographic data of family related characteristics, comparing, where possible, Canada, Alberta and Alberta Census divisions. Most of the data is obtained from either the Dominion Bureau of Statistics or the Alberta Bureau of Statistics publications.

There will be a cursory examination of unpublished reports, theses and papers and published materials of relevance to the family.

Data on agencies and personnel involved in serving families in the province is presented. Consideration is given to the distribution and availability of services in relation to population data.

The family is one of the networks of human relationships in society that are structured to meet human needs. Any study of the family should be directed by some of the following questions:

Why do families exist? What purpose do they serve in society? Why do families persist? Why do family and kinship forms and practices vary among and within societies? What is the





relationship between the family and other institutions such as politics, or, more recently, leisure? What is the societal significance of family change, the emergence of alternative family forms, the persistence of the nuclear family? These questions and others illustrate the importance of research on the interconnections of the family and society.

A second group of questions concerns the impact of the family on its members, in particular its young. In what ways does the family influence the development of the child? What are the characteristics of marriage and family relationships in lower class neighborhoods? What is the impact of working motherhood on children, on the self-esteem of the mother herself, and on the husband-wife relationship? The possible connection between the attitudes and behaviors of people and their current or preceding marriage and family relationships document the importance of social psychological family research.

ocial Organization  
nd the Family

Research on the family can be divided into several categories. These include:

- \* Kinship structures and forms -- nuclear, extended, monogamy, polygyny, polyandry, group marriage, communal family, size, age and sex composition;
- \* Kinship regulations, status, and deference patterns -- lineage, residence, authority, status of family members, deference and avoidance rules;
- \* Premarriage, marriage entry, and marriage patterns -- premarital preparation, mate selection patterns, regulations relating to marriage including marriage entrance requirements and ceremonies, characteristics of marriage and the regulations administered by kinship groups or enforced by society;
- \* Procreation and socialization -- regulations relating to childbirth and childbearing, socialization procedures, purposes and the structure and process of social influence;
- \* Family and society -- the ways in which the kinship system is related to the larger society; the nature of contact and regulation between kinship groupings;
- \* Family and social change -- the impact of cultural complexity, technology, social mobility, urbanization, and related societal factors on the family system; the impact of differing family forms on societal change; the family in the future, e.g., emerging family forms, utopian families.



- \* Subcultural families -- the analysis of minority or unusual family forms and relationships within a society where there are differing majority patterns;
- \* Family and institutions -- the relationship between the family and other institutions such as politics, economics, religion, education and leisure.
- \* Family and demography -- the study of census materials and other data concerning the distribution of marriage and family characteristics.
- \* Residual family issues -- studies of the family which focus on general family characteristics such as parenthood in Canadian society, without specifying the linkage to particular family types.

Chart I represents the typology created by the cross-indexing of the features listed above provides an indication of the scope of the questions that could be asked concerning the relationship between the family and society. It is obvious from the chart that most of these questions, at least in Alberta, have yet to be researched.

Research on social organization and the family in Alberta reflects a pronounced interest in selected ethnic groups (Italians, Ukrainians, Indians) to the neglect of the numerous other ethnic groups equally worthy of study, such as the English, Russian, French, German and Oriental.

Families of differing socio-economic levels (upper, middle, working, lower) have been largely ignored in the context of ethnic research, which precludes the upper and middle levels of Alberta society. Further, none of the research identified deals extensively with the family, which for the most part is a minor variable.

Although the Hutterites have been studied extensively, none of the research has yet attempted to further explore the dimensions of family life and socialization in Hutterite colonies.

Social organization theory, the essence of kinship regulation, status and deference, marriage, parenthood, and socialization patterns remain to be explored in both Alberta and Canada.

Research questions concerning the internal characteristics of families can be organized in the following manner:

- \* Premarriage -- dating, courtship, love, sexual attitudes and behaviors, mate choice, marriage preparation. Note: This category doesn't fit the typology very well except when







	SOCIAL ORGANIZATION AND THE FAMILY				Family and Society
	Kinship structure and forms	Kinship regulations, status and deference patterns	Premarriage, marriage entry and marriage patterns	Procreation and Socialization	
Family in time and space					
Family & Social Change	(2)	(2)	(3)	(2)	(4)
Subcultural Families	(4)	(5)	(3)	(6)	(6)
Family and Institutions					(1)
Family and History					
Family and Demography	(1)				(1)
Residual Family Issues					

\* The numbers in parentheses refer to the number of studies which we were able to identify in each area. Those cells of the grid without an entry are, as far as we are able to determine, unresearched in Alberta



premarriage activities occur in the context of parental influence. Nonetheless, research in North American society on these areas tends to be more social-psychologically oriented than not;

- \* Parent-child relations (infant, child, adolescent) and relationship between parent(s) and child(ren), whether one-sided or two-sided;
- \* Family as a unit -- the study of the entire family; if there are five persons in the family they are all studied as a social system or a combination of sub-systems;
- \* Kinship -- in-law relationships, visiting and help patterns;
- \* Authority -- the distribution and ranking of power and authority;
- \* Division of labor -- the distribution and ranking of family responsibilities;
- \* Relationships and emotional climate -- disciplinary procedures, sanctioning system, personality, mental and social abilities, types of relationships: essentially any relationships where one family member may have an influence on another family member;
- \* Values and norms -- the influence of values and norms on relationships;
- \* Consensus -- content and degree;
- \* Interaction -- covert and overt behavior;
- \* Structure and linking conditions -- family size, age and sex composition of the family, father's education, occupation, and ethnicity.

The scope of questions that may be asked from this typology (Chart II) are also profuse. It is evident that the majority of the issues concerning social psychology and the family have not been studied in Alberta. Nearly all research has been limited to the impact of parental characteristics on some aspect of the teenager's life. The published and unpublished references available on social psychology and the family in Alberta amount to some 35 papers, reports and theses.



A TYPOLOGY OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS IN FAMILY RESEARCH

Internal Family Characteristics	Pre-Marriage	TYPE OF RELATIONSHIP					
		PARENT AND:			Sibling	Family as Unit	Kinship
		Marriage	Infants	Child			
Authority					(1)		
Division of Labor							
Relationship				(3)	(11)		
Emotional Climate					(10)		
Values and Norms	(4)						
Consensus							
Interaction	(4)			(2)	(1)		
Structure and Linking Conditions				(1)			

\* The numbers in parentheses refer to the number of studies which we were able to identify in each area. Those cells of the grid without an entry are, as far as we are able to determine, unresearched in Alberta.





Family Research in  
Alberta: A Summary  
Comment

A typology of research possibilities in social organization and the family identifies 30 major related areas of family research. Actual research in Alberta to this point shows some relationship to only 13 of these areas studied.

A typology of research possibilities in social psychology and the family shows 56 major categories of family research, of which only five have been researched extensively.

Additional research is needed in all aspects of family study.

DEMOGRAPHIC  
CHARACTERISTICS  
OF THE FAMILY

General Vital  
Statistics

Vital statistics for Alberta between 1936 and the present (Table 1) provide evidence of several trends.

The rate of natural population increase (the number of births relative to deaths) reached a high in 1954 and has progressively declined until in 1968 the rate was only slightly higher than in 1936. A similar trend is apparent for Canada.

The percentage of illegitimate births has consistently increased from 1936 to the present in both Canada and Alberta, and Alberta has a substantially higher rate than Canada. Indeed since 1960 the rate has more than doubled.

Length of life has also consistently increased from 1936 to the present. Males in Alberta now live 17 years longer on the average than they did in 1936, while females live more than 24 years longer.

The marriage age in Alberta has consistently decreased, with males now marrying at about 25 compared with 29 in 1940. Average marriage age for females in 1940 was 24, compared to the current average age of 22. Marriage rates have changed little between 1936 and 1968, but the divorce rate was higher in Alberta in 1968 than ever before, more than doubling since 1955, and reaching two and a half times as high as in the rest of Canada.

Selected vital statistics for the Census Divisions in Alberta and selected cities are presented in Table 2. The legitimate birth rate varied from a low of 14.1 in C.D. 9 to a high of 20.5 in C.D. 12. Census divisions 12 and 15 have unusually high rates while the majority (12 out of 15) have rates below 17.3.

The percentage of illegitimate births also varies widely from a low of 5.6 per cent in Census division 9, to a high of 21.6 per cent in Census divisions 9, 3, 15, 12, and 13, in that order, have illegitimate births of 14 per cent whereas Census divisions 4, 7, and 10 have less than 6 per cent illegitimate births. The marriage rate is unusually high in





VITAL STATISTICS FOR CANADA AND ALBERTA, 1936-1968

YEAR	RATE OF 1		ILLEGITIMATE		MEDIAN AGE AT DEATH		MARRIAGE		MEDIAN AGE AT MARRIAGE		DIVORCE	
	NAT. INCREASE		BIRTHS		MALES		RATES 1		MALE		RATE 2	
	CAN	ALTA	CAN	ALTA	CAN	ALTA	CAN	ALTA	CAN	ALTA	CAN	ALTA
1936	10.4	12.4	3.9	3.8	58.9	52.2	59.8	48.1	7.4	7.8	14.3	28.2
37	9.7	12.4	3.9	3.9	57.9	54.5	59.0	48.7	7.9	8.2	16.6	33.4
38	11.0	12.8	4.0	4.3	59.6	56.5	61.3	53.3	7.9	8.9	20.0	34.7
39	10.9	13.6	3.9	3.7	61.0	58.6	63.1	55.8	9.2	10.0	18.4	34.6
1940	11.8	14.1	3.9	3.9	61.7	60.0	63.8	56.0	10.8	11.1	21.2	34.7
41	12.3	13.7	4.0	4.2	61.2	58.9	63.6	56.9	10.6	10.6	21.4	39.1
42	13.7	15.8	4.1	4.2	61.7	61.0	63.6	59.0	10.9	11.6	26.5	48.3
43	14.1	16.3	4.1	4.5	62.5	61.1	64.7	60.4	9.4	9.9	28.8	52.6
44	14.2	16.2	4.2	4.4	62.7	61.0	64.5	58.8	9.5	9.0	32.0	59.9
45	14.3	16.7	4.5	5.3	63.1	62.5	65.0	61.5	9.0	9.0	42.3	71.2
46	17.8	19.4	4.1	5.5	63.1	62.4	65.3	63.6	10.9	11.8	63.1	119.8
47	19.5	22.0	4.0	6.7	65.0	63.2	66.0	64.4	10.1	10.7	65.1	106.8
48	18.0	20.0	4.3	5.1	65.1	64.2	67.0	63.9	9.6	10.4	36.4	76.2
49	18.0	20.3	3.9	4.9	65.1	64.7	67.4	64.9	9.3	10.2	37.7	81.1
1950	18.0	20.6	3.9	4.6	65.1	65.2	68.2	65.0	9.1	10.2	39.1	87.7
51	18.2	21.2	3.8	4.7	65.1	65.0	68.8	66.1	9.7	9.9	41.1	97.1
52	19.2	22.4	3.8	4.5	65.1	64.7	68.4	65.6	9.0	9.8	38.1	87.1
53	19.5	23.6	3.8	5.0	65.1	65.1	68.3	66.6	8.8	10.0	38.1	87.1
54	20.1	24.7	3.9	4.6	66.0	65.9	68.7	66.0	8.1	9.4	37.7	81.0
55	20.0	24.1	3.8	5.0	67.0	67.1	70.4	66.1	8.1	9.0	40.3	62.4
56	19.9	24.2	3.9	4.8	67.0	67.5	70.6	68.8	8.1	9.0	36.8	61.6
57	20.0	23.6	4.0	5.1	66.0	68.0	70.6	68.5	8.0	8.7	37.4	67.0
58	19.6	23.7	4.0	5.1	67.3	67.5	71.2	69.5	7.7	8.4	39.1	73.7
59	19.4	23.7	4.2	5.6	67.7	67.9	71.8	70.5	7.6	8.3	36.0	78.0
1960	19.0	23.3	4.3	5.6	67.8	68.4	72.0	69.8	7.3	8.1	40.6	90.4
61	18.4	22.5	4.5	6.2	67.9	68.3	72.2	70.6	7.0	7.9	44.7	97.1
62	17.6	21.5	4.8	6.6	68.0	69.0	72.4	71.1	7.0	7.6	45.7	93.0
63	16.8	20.7	5.3	7.1	68.2	69.2	72.9	72.0	6.9	7.2	51.2	107.1
64	15.9	18.7	5.9	8.3	68.1	68.6	72.9	71.6	7.2	7.4	54.7	116.5
65	13.7	15.9	6.7	9.8	68.5	69.2	73.4	72.2	7.4	7.7	124.4	
66	11.9	14.3	7.6	10.5	68.4	69.6	73.5	73.1	7.8	8.1		
67	10.8	14.2	8.3	11.5	68.2	69.3	73.6	72.5	8.1	8.7		
68		13.3		11.9								

1 per 1,000 population

2 per 100,000 population

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics Catalogue 84-202



Judicial Districts and Census Divisions	Population	Live Births		Illegitimate		Marriages		Divorces	
		Legitimate	Rate <sup>1</sup>	Number	Rate <sup>2</sup>	Number	Rate <sup>3</sup>	Number	Rate <sup>4</sup>
1 Medicine Hat	38,000	641	16.8	61	8.7	343	9.0		
2 Lethbridge	25,574	395	15.4	51	11.40	314	12.2	28	100.0
3 Fort MacLeod	83,000	1,432	17.2	115	8.0	682	8.2		
4 Hanna	37,760	604	15.9	51	7.8	443	11.7	81	210.0
5 Drumheller	31,000	483	15.5	119	19.8	353	11.3		
6 Calgary	2,640	40	15.1	6	13.0	33	13.2	4	150.0
7 Edmonton	14,000	200	14.2	12	5.6	91	6.5		
8 Red Deer	2,633	44	16.7	5	10.2	41	15.5	2	70.0
9 Wetaskiwin	36,000	553	15.3	65	10.5	249	6.9		
10 Peace River	4,698	79	16.8	11	10.9	75	15.9	2	40.0
11 Grande Prairie	403,600	6,969	17.3	966	12.1	1,870	9.1		
TOTALS	354,856	6,333	17.8	911	12.6	3,452	9.7	840	230.0
	40,000	506	12.6	11	2.7	322	8.0		
	85,000	1,352	15.9	183	11.9	724	8.5		
	26,730	475	17.7	51	2.5	329	12.3	61	130.0
	17,000	240	14.1	66	21.6	179	10.5		
	67,000	976	14.5	59	5.7	555	8.2		
	503,000	9,153	18.1	1,293	12.4	5,020	9.9		
	393,563	7,626	19.4	1,118	11.0	1,395	3.5	843	210.0
	6,154	87	14.1	14	13.9	84	13.6	12	190.0
	52,000	1,069	20.5	179	14.3	382	7.3		
	44,000	627	14.2	102	14.0	309	7.0		
	21,000	364	17.3	41	10.1	105	5.0		
	92,000	1,858	20.1	341	15.5	656	7.1		
	5,201	130	24.9	17	11.6	73	14.0	5	90.0
	11,605	291	25.0	30	9.3	170	14.6	23	190.0
TOTALS	1,526,000	26,335		3,614	11.9	13,640	8.9	1,906	123.5

1. Number of legitimate live births per 1,000 population

2. Percentage of live births

3. Number of marriages per 1,000 population

4. Number of divorces per 100,000 population

Sources: ABS Municipal Affairs Census Figures,  
Annual Report of the Department of  
Health, Province of Alberta, 1968;  
DBS Bulletin 91-206.





Census division 3 (11.3) and unusually low in Census division 14 (5.0). Relative to cities, the marriage rate appears to be highest in Drumheller (15.9) and extremely low in Edmonton (3.4). Calgary's rate is nearly three times as high as Edmonton (9.7). Divorce statistics are not available for Census divisions, only judicial districts. Accordingly, the divorce rate is presented for the eleven districts. It is apparent that the divorce rate for 1968, 123.5, hides substantial variation across the Province. Calgary and Red Deer have the highest divorce rate, nearly twice as high as the Provincial average. Lethbridge and Edmonton follow closely behind. In contrast, the divorce rates are considerably below the average in Drumheller and Hanna judicial districts.

The first child is born, on the average, before the mother reaches the age of 22. The majority of women are through child bearing before they reach the age of 30. and the average couple are through bearing children below the age of 25. This means they can anticipate childless marriage once again by their middle forties, a factor which combined with the length of life, has far reaching implications for marital interaction.

Husbands were granted more divorces than wives until 1929, and again between 1944 and 1946 (Table 3). Since 1952, however, wives have been granted more divorces, and an all-time high was reached in 1968, when two-thirds of all divorces were granted to wives. Until the passing of the most recent Act, divorces could be obtained only when one spouse filed against the other. The effects of divorce by mutual consent remain to be seen.

#### Family Characteristics

Alberta shares a North American norm that each nuclear family occupy a separate dwelling. More than 80 per cent of houses are occupied by a single family and 75 per cent of the remaining households are occupied by unmarried persons. Only about two per cent of all households are occupied by two families, and less than 1/10 of one per cent by three or more families.

The variations by place of residence are apparent. More urban households than rural households are occupied by unmarried persons in both Canada and Alberta. Similarly, rural households have a larger proportion of single family occupants than urban households. It is of interest that there is no difference in household occupancy by two families between urban and rural households in Canada but three family households are more frequent in urban areas. In contrast, two and three family households are more prevalent in rural areas of Alberta.





TABLE 3

## DIVORCES AND NULLITIES IN ALBERTA SINCE PASSING OF THE ACT, 1919-1968

GRANTED TO HUSBAND	GRANTED TO WIFE	TOTAL	YEAR	GRANTED TO HUSBAND	GRANTED TO WIFE	TOTAL
3 (50.0)	3 (50.0)	6	1944	245 (49.2)	243 (49.8)	488
74 (74.0)	26 (26.0)	100	45	302 (52.5)	273 (47.5)	575
53 (58.9)	37 (41.1)	90	46	494 (50.7)	480 (49.3)	974
80 (62.0)	49 (39.0)	129	47	404 (45.8)	478 (54.2)	882
57 (64.0)	32 (36.0)	89	48	302 (45.8)	357 (54.2)	659
66 (55.5)	53 (44.5)	119	49	262 (44.1)	332 (55.9)	594
59 (58.4)	42 (41.6)	101	1950	249 (44.5)	311 (55.5)	560
79 (51.3)	75 (48.7)	154	51	255 (43.3)	334 (56.7)	589
83 (55.7)	66 (44.3)	149	52	239 (37.9)	391 (62.1)	630
91 (52.0)	84 (48.0)	175	53	228 (37.8)	375 (62.2)	603
77 (52.0)	71 (48.0)	148	54	224 (36.8)	384 (63.2)	608
64 (42.4)	87 (57.6)	151	55	233 (37.2)	394 (62.8)	627
69 (44.2)	87 (55.8)	156	56	278 (40.4)	410 (59.6)	688
68 (45.6)	81 (54.4)	149	57	317 (43.7)	409 (56.3)	726
56 (41.5)	79 (58.5)	135	58	295 (39.2)	457 (60.8)	752
62 (36.9)	106 (63.1)	168	59	343 (40.3)	509 (59.7)	852
74 (35.4)	135 (64.6)	209	1960	399 (41.3)	566 (58.7)	965
74 (42.2)	135 (57.8)	209	61	381 (36.1)	675 (63.9)	1056
102 (39.3)	139 (60.7)	241	62	411 (37.3)	690 (62.7)	1101
105 (39.0)	162 (61.0)	267	63	513 (40.0)	769 (60.0)	1282
104 (39.0)	163 (61.0)	267	64	504 (36.0)	896 (64.0)	1400
119 (43.6)	154 (56.4)	273	65	474 (34.8)	888 (65.2)	1362
135 (43.4)	176 (56.6)	311	66	539 (34.4)	1028 (65.6)	1567
179 (47.1)	201 (52.9)	380	67	630 (35.9)	1127 (64.1)	1757
190 (46.0)	223 (54.0)	413	68	653 (34.0)	1266 (66.0)	1919

Source: Annual Report of the Department of Health, Alberta, 1968.



The Red Deer area has the highest number of single family households while the Hanna area has the lowest number. The Lethbridge area has nearly nine times as many two family households and three times as many three-family households as most of the other Census divisions. This would appear to reflect the relatively high percentage of Indian households in the area.

In Canada, multi-family households contain more kin-related persons in rural areas and more nonkin-related persons in urban areas. Alberta, in contrast, has nearly two and a half times more nonkin-related persons living in households in rural areas than in urban areas. Families with more than three children are more common in rural areas, and in Alberta Lac La Biche and Grande Prairie areas have the higher percentage of families with five or more persons. The Calgary and Edmonton areas have the most families with one or two children.

#### Marital Status

In Canada the majority of urban family heads (about 93 per cent) are males. Among urban married family heads, 91.5 per cent represent homes where both the husband and wife are present, .5 per cent are headed by husbands only, and 2.2 per cent are headed by wives only. More than five times as many divorced family heads are female as male.

Urban patterns differ somewhat from rural patterns. There is a higher proportion of rural married couples, a lower proportion of rural wife-only heads, a higher proportion of rural widowers, and an equal proportion of male and female divorced heads in rural Canada. Similar patterns are observed for both urban and rural Alberta. The primary exception lies in the fact that there are twice as many divorced male and female heads in urban Alberta as in urban Canada.

More than half the population in both Alberta and Canada is single, and nearly 70 per cent is below the age of 15. The majority of the population over the age of 15 is married, about 67 per cent.

Nearly all (98.4 per cent) married couples maintain their own household. Widowed females, divorced females and never-married females more often maintain a separate residence than do their male counterparts.

Nearly 34 per cent of husband and wife families have five or more persons in the family. In contrast, less than 10 per cent of widowed families contain this many persons. About one third as many divorced families as husband and wife families contain five or more persons. Female divorced families are twice as large as male divorced families.





TABLE 4.

MARITAL STATUS BY AGE, URBAN AND RURAL,  
FOR CANADA AND ALBERTA, 1966 (PERCENTAGES)

Marital Status and Location	Totals		Over 15		Alberta by Age						
	Canada	Alberta	Canada	Alberta	15-19	20-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65+
Totals	20,014,880	1,463,203	13,423,123	952,437	1,837,725	128,999	186,681	184,532	145,224	100,986	104,600
Single	51.74	51.71	28.04	25.81	94.45	50.40	14.07	8.51	8.20	8.92	9.55
Married	43.58	43.85	64.98	67.36	5.51	42.74	84.57	88.97	86.34	78.52	55.42
Widowed	4.34	3.87	6.48	5.94	.01	.09	.37	1.31	4.07	11.39	34.59
Divorced	.32	.56	.48	.86	.01	.12	.97	1.20	1.37	1.15	.63
Urban	14,726,759	1,007,407	10,092,045	660,861	85,530	76,900	139,646	171,036	96,083	63,995	71,600
Single	50.34	50.32	27.53	24.73	98.88	49.32	13.0	7.37	7.81	7.79	1.09
Married	44.66	44.75	65.17	68.81	6.06	50.01	85.04	89.56	85.17	77.62	53.10
Widowed	4.61	4.21	6.73	6.31	.01	.11	.60	1.53	4.66	13.15	37.53
Divorced	.38	.70	.55	1.06	.02	.44	1.20	1.53	1.76	1.39	.65
Rural (Non-Farm)	3,374,407	178,196	2,119,398	113,059	25,725	18,432	20,070	14,869	16,337	13,851	17,333
Single	54.66	53.73	27.81	21.08	98.38	47.11	18.16	11.57	10.38	12.45	1.12
Married	40.95	41.36	63.20	65.90	0.60	52.00	81.13	89.28	81.80	76.26	57.73
Widowed	4.19	4.53	8.67	7.14	--	.01	.63	1.00	4.73	12.19	36.10
Divorced	.19	.36	.32	.30	--	.03	.03	.63	1.37	1.09	.63
Rural (Farm)	1,913,714	277,598	1,211,680	174,517	28,146	13,673	169,965	34,816	32,758	23,140	15,010
Single	57.38	55.43	32.69	29.10	96.74	58.15	18.46	10.76	9.43	9.93	1.10
Married	39.92	42.16	63.06	67.06	3.24	41.68	81.11	88.23	83.10	83.55	64.19
Widowed	2.58	2.22	4.09	3.53	--	.05	.21	.70	2.07	5.96	25.25
Divorced	.09	.18	.01	.03	--	.09	.20	.29	.39	.54	.59





The majority of married couples and widowed family heads live in single detached dwellings. The majority of divorced family heads are fairly evenly divided into single detached dwellings and apartments. Never married females more often live in apartments.

Most of the families living in single detached dwellings own their own homes. Female only family heads and divorced female family heads own their own homes less frequently. And although owners of apartments are in the minority, more than twice as many widowed family heads and married couples own apartments as persons occupying other marital statuses.

The patterns identified above also vary by the age of the family head. While nearly all married couples maintain a separate residence, the percentage varies in families where only the husband is at home (from 26.4 to 94.1 per cent). Young husbands, young wives and young widows in that order share a household more often than young couples.

The occupations in which men and women work vary considerably (Figure 1). Most women who work are involved in clerical occupations, whereas most men are involved in semi-skilled occupations. Single males are least involved in managerial professions and married males are most involved. More divorced males than widowed males are involved in managerial occupations. Similarly, divorced males are most involved in service and recreational occupations and least involved in semi-skilled occupations. Single males are most involved in semi-skilled operations.

Females are considerably more varied in their occupational affiliations for differing marital statuses. While there are only minimal differences apparent in managerial, sales, transportation and laboring occupations, professional, clerical service and semi-skilled occupations reveal substantive differences. Single females are more involved in professional and less involved in clerical occupations than widowed or married females. As might be expected, widowed females are far more involved in service professions, and married females are more involved in semi-skilled professions. Divorced and single females are considerably more involved in clerical occupations.

The reasons for these differing patterns can be easily discerned. Divorced females often find themselves in an unanticipated situation requiring them to work. In general, they are not trained for any other type of occupation and clerical work is the easiest to obtain. Widows, in contrast, are generally quite a bit older than divorcees, are not as well educated, and more often turned away because of their age. Consequently they are forced to choose service occupations.



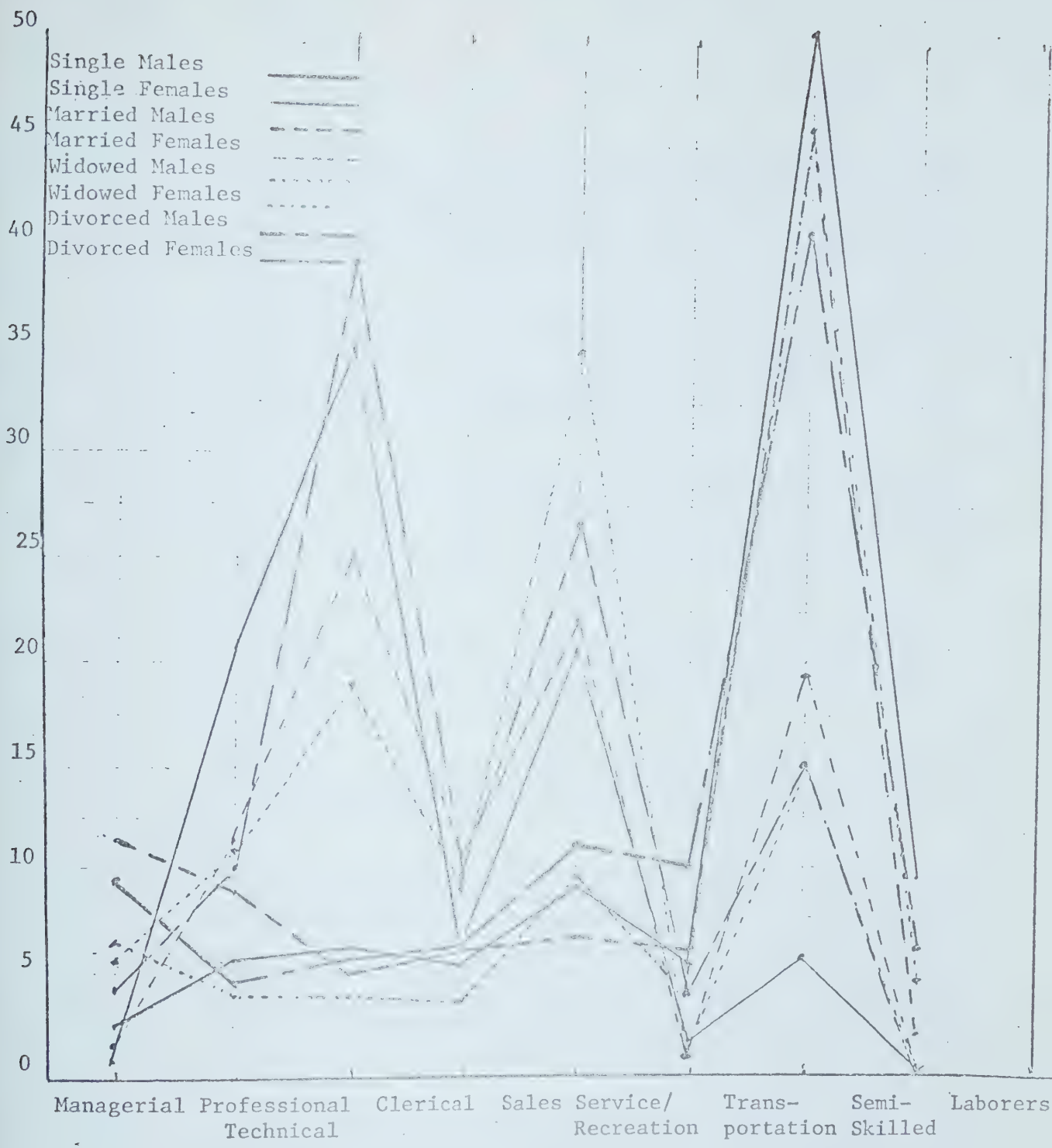


FIGURE 1

PERCENT IN OCCUPATIONS BY MARITAL STATUS AND SEX OF HEAD FOR ALBERTA



## Social Characteristics of Marriage

Marriage statistics in both Alberta and Canada indicate that the majority of bachelors tend to marry spinsters, rather than divorced women or widows; that widowers tend to marry widows, that husbands are older than their wives, and that this age difference is larger the older the husband.

The probability of a bachelor getting married appears to decrease radically after the age of 30, even more radically for spinsters. There is one chance in a hundred that a spinster will marry beyond the age of 40, while the chances for bachelors are three out of a hundred.

The majority of widowers are beyond the age of 50 when they remarry, and nearly 31 per cent marry after age 65. Widows appear to enter the re-marriage circuit somewhat earlier and their marriage chances decrease with age, while the marriage chances of the widower improve somewhat with age.

Divorced brides are typically beyond the age of 25. The probability of marriage is still one in ten by age 40. Divorced grooms are typically beyond the age of 30, and their chances of re-marrying are still about one in ten at age 50.

Marriages in Alberta in 1968 occurred most frequently in August and June. Months recording the lowest percentage of marriages were the cold ones -- January through March.

Religion is a significant factor in marriage (Table 5). Among very fundamentalist religious groups, the proportion marrying outside the "faith" is generally very small. The strength of religious isolation is most apparent among the International Bible Students, 80.6 per cent of whom marry within their own group. They are followed by Jews (76.6 per cent), Mormons (65.5 per cent), Mennonites (62.8 per cent), Oriental religions (62.9 per cent), and United Church (56.5 per cent).

## Summary

Vital statistics for Canada and Alberta reveal several trends. The rate of natural increase reached its highest point in the fifties and has continued to decline to the present. The percentage of illegitimate births, and length of life for both males and females has increased. The age at marriage for both males and females has declined, while marriage rates have remained fairly stable to the present. There is some evidence that marriage rates have been increasing since 1963. Divorce rates have been increasing rapidly since 1955.

Urban Alberta had proportionately more, relative to rural areas, unmarried persons. Rural Alberta has several more visible characteristics including single family occupants, two-three









family households, nonkin-related persons in the household, households with five or more persons and three or more children.

The majority of women are through bearing children before 30. Since 1952 more divorces have been granted to wives, and this trend will likely increase. There are twice as many divorced family heads in urban Alberta as in urban Canada, and four times as many in rural Alberta.

Nearly all married couples maintain their own household, whereas female single parents and those never married least often maintain a separate residence. The majority of married couples and widowed family heads live in a single detached dwelling.

Minimal occupational differences were found among males of differing marital statuses. Females, however, present a more varied portrait. Earnings were found to be considerably higher among single females than among married females.

Bachelors and divorced men typically marry spinsters. Widowers tend to marry widows. Men tend to marry women of the same age or younger, and the disparity increases with the age of husbands. Marriage chances for widows decrease with age, but increase with age for widowers. The probability of marriage for a divorced bride is about one in ten at the age of 40, whereas divorced grooms can depend on similar possibilities at the age of 50.

#### FAMILY SERVICES

While industrial society may be characterized by such terms as functional interdependence, job specialization, the work ethic and vertical mobility, post-industrial society represents even higher levels of job specialization and interdependence while at the same time being characterized by a wavering work ethic, affluence, physical mobility of unprecedented proportion and enhanced egoism.

With new ways of life come new problems: career choice, the management of resources, negligent parenthood, emotional disturbance, anomie (alienation), delinquency, and training for flexibility and the use of leisure. In consequence, the concept of "human need" is no longer limited to the emergency and token care of the destitute. Educating agencies and social services must reorganize their efforts toward assisting people of all levels to find a satisfying self-identity. Indeed, a satisfactory compromise between stability and change in the interest of social order will be a function of the capability and effectiveness of socializing institutions and the preventative and facilitative social services.



Ideally, an analysis of family services would include a comprehensive and critical assessment of: (a) the development of social services in the province; (b) current attempts to coordinate and integrate social services, as reflected in the efforts of the Department of Social Development and the recent project design of the Westmount Project in Edmonton; (c) recommendations of various reports on specific aspects of family service such as DAY CARE NEEDS IN CALGARY (published by the Social Planning Council in Calgary); (d) a review of selected agencies serving families relative to competence, resources and services; and (e) the effectiveness of present services relative to the type of people being served and the adequacy of the service.

Unfortunately the purpose of this report must be more modest, but it will provide a brief analysis of the system with some of the implications of these findings.

ersonnel

Many differing types of professional and para-professional people are involved in serving the needs of family members including social workers, guidance counselors, lay counselors, lay group workers, psychologists, psychiatrists, physicians, lawyers, probation officers, pastors, home economists and community development workers. Their responsibilities vary widely in purpose and scope. Some focus on the needs of individuals almost exclusive of their families; others direct their efforts to the needs of the community, ignoring the needs of individuals. Some are affiliated with agencies, others maintain a private practice.

The province as a whole has about 54 social workers for each 100,000 people (Table 6). These are not evenly divided, since Calgary and Edmonton areas have nearly 70 social workers per 100,000 people, while the Fort MacLeod and Hanna Census divisions do not have any social workers at all. Thirteen of the fifteen Census divisions have proportionately less than the average number of social workers.

Since social workers in Edmonton agree they are only scratching the surface of human need, the proportion of social workers there provides a rough reference point for other Census divisions. By these standards most of the Census divisions need more than twice as many social workers as they have now. About 250 additional social workers would have been necessary in the province to meet the needs of the 1968 population.

Guidance counselors for elementary and junior high schools are needed in nearly all Census divisions. The province as a whole required 90 additional elementary and junior high counselors and nearly 300 additional high school counselors in 1968.



## PERSONNEL SERVING FAMILY MEMBERS FOR CENSUS DIVISIONS, ALBERTA, 1968

Census Division	Population <sup>1</sup>	Social Workers <sup>3</sup>	School Counselors <sup>4</sup>				Psychologists <sup>5</sup>		Psychiatrists <sup>6</sup>	
			Number	Ratio <sup>2</sup>	Jr. High/Ele.	Senior High	Number	Ratio	Number	Ratio
1	38,000	13	34.2		5	13.2	13	34.2	-	-
2	83,000	44	53.0		9	16.8	11	13.3	3	3.6
3	31,000	-	-		-	-	1	3.2	-	-
4	14,000	-	-		-	-	1	7.1	-	-
5	36,000	7	19.7		2	5.6	4	11.1	-	-
6	403,000	271	67.2		24	6.0	67	16.6	26	6.5
7	40,000	6	15.0		2	5.0	7	17.5	-	-
8	85,000	25	29.4		10	11.8	14	16.5	4	4.7
9	17,000	7	41.2		1	5.9	3	17.6	-	-
10	67,000	13	19.4		3	4.5	12	17.9	-	-
11	503,000	350	69.6		83	16.5	42	11.7	32	7.0
12	52,000	21	40.4		6	11.5	5	9.6	-	-
13	44,000	11	25.0		5	11.4	9	20.5	-	-
14	21,000	9	42.8		-	-	2	9.5	-	-
15	92,000	45	48.9		4	4.3	14	15.2	-	-
TOTALS	1,526,000	872	57.8		154	10.1	178	15.3	109	8.7

<sup>1</sup> Population estimates for 1968.<sup>2</sup> Estimated number of personnel per 100,000 population.<sup>3</sup> Number based on information obtained from the Department of Social Development, Attorney General's Department, and the Alberta Social Workers Association.<sup>4</sup> Number based on information obtained from the Supervisor of Education, Department of Education, Province of Alberta.<sup>5</sup> Number based on information obtained from the Registrar of the Alberta Psychological Association.<sup>6</sup> Number based on information obtained from the Secretary of the Alberta Psychiatric Association.





Also in short supply are psychologists and psychiatrists, who are more directly related to the family, because many individual problems emanate from parent-child or marital relationships. In 1968 Alberta as a whole needed about 116 more psychologists and 50 more psychiatrists, and it is likely the situation has worsened since then.

Available data indicates that there was an under-supply of all professional services in 1968 in most parts of the province. Increased production of trained personnel and increased provincial financial support of social services in areas other than Edmonton and Calgary will be necessary to correct these deficits.

agencies

Services to families reflect a wide variation of purposes and techniques. Private clubs, churches, nurseries (public and private), extension and adult education services, unmarried parent services, family planning clinics, senior citizen and nursing homes, institutions of special care for the blind, handicapped or retarded, drop-in centres, dental and health services and many other services effectively illustrate the diversity and scope of societal interest in the welfare of families.

There are a total of 31 agencies providing marriage and family counseling in Alberta (Table 7). Eighteen of these are located in the Edmonton and Calgary areas. Additional counseling services are provided by private psychologists and psychiatrists affiliated with the Universities of Calgary and Alberta. Few would disagree with the assumption that the need for depth counseling is far greater than current agencies can provide.

Family life education is defined by the Department of Social Development as including "everything from defensive driving to seminars on drug abuse to sensitivity training sessions on group process." Four agencies in Calgary and seven in Edmonton provide family life education, and services outside these areas are provided by the Department of Social Development, with the exception of the Lethbridge and Medicine Hat Family Service Bureaus.

Supplementary child care services are defined to include public and private day care, play schools, HeadStart and other pre-school programs. Medicine Hat has a high ratio of supplementary services, including two private play schools, two preschool programs and a day care centre supported by the Department of Social Development. Calgary has 47 differing supplementary care opportunities for children, compared to 37 in Edmonton.





Census Divisions	Population <sup>1</sup>	Marriage and Family Counseling		Family Life Education		Supplementary Child Care		Special Family Services	
		Number	Ratio <sup>2</sup>	Number	Ratio	Number	Ratio	Number	Ratio
1	38,000	1	2.6	1	2.6	5	13.2	1	2.6
2	83,000	1	1.2	1	1.2	3	3.6	1	1.2
3	31,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	14,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5	36,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6	403,000	8	2.0	4	1.0	47	11.7	21	5.2
7	40,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8	85,000	2	2.4	1	1.2	1	1.2	3	3.5
9	17,000	1	5.9	1	5.9	3	17.6	1	5.9
10	67,000	2	3.0	2	3.0	1	1.5	-	-
11	503,000	10	2.0	7	1.4	17	7.0	30	6.0
12	52,000	3	5.8	-	-	5	9.6	2	3.8
13	44,000	1	2.3	1	2.3	2	4.6	1	2.3
14	21,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
15	92,000	2	2.2	7	7.6	4	-	-	-
TOTALS	1,526,000	31		25		100		60	

<sup>1</sup> Population estimates for 1968.

<sup>2</sup> Number of agencies per 100,000 population.

<sup>3</sup> The number of agencies is based on information obtained from the Department of Social Development, Department of Health, and a detailed analysis of all telephone books in the Province.



Special family services include adoption services, debt counseling, foster home care and homemaker service, family planning, legal aid, unmarried parent services, services to the aged and services to alcoholics. These services are minimally provided by 21 agencies in Calgary and 30 agencies in Edmonton. No services of this nature are available in seven of the fifteen Census divisions.

The above analysis of agency services to families clearly illustrates the current inadequacy of services within Census divisions as well as across Census divisions. In general, several questions need asking:

Do families seeking aid of agencies represent those who most need help? Do certain agencies cater to certain groups to the relative neglect of others? Do agencies supported by public funds utilize these funds to advantage?

## CONCLUSION

This section summarized the results of a survey of all obtainable data on family life in Alberta. As conceived, it was to provide readily accessible information concerning a number of questions relative to family structure and relationships: What types of families exist in Alberta? Who lives in each type? Where are they located? What types of relationships exist between family members in differing types of families? What is being done to assist families in carrying out their functions? How coordinated is this assistance? How accessible are these services? How much do they cost the consumer? How much do these services cost society?

Accordingly, the section had three main parts. The first was the development of a model for research on family life in Alberta. In terms of the model which was devised, it became clear that little is known about family life in Alberta.

The second was the identification of all demographic data of relevance to family life in Alberta. Its purpose was descriptive rather than explanatory; the starting question was "How?" rather than "Why?"

The final part attempted to establish the scope, accessibility and cost of services provided to families.







## POVERTY IN ALBERTA

For the vast majority of Canadians today, life is reasonably comfortable and prosperous. Surrounded by unprecedented material wealth, it is relatively easy for these people to assume that they are insulated against the problems of the rest of their society, that such problems are the concern of others, or that such problems do not even exist. Poverty is one such problem that is unequivocally real and, if left unresolved, has very staggering consequences for both the comfortable majority and uncomfortable minority.

Poverty - grim, debasing, and ineluctable - is not a totally new phenomenon. It has historically and will continue to pose a persistent challenge to mankind.

Poverty is abhorrently evident in contemporary Canadian society. In its Fifth Annual Review the Economic Council of Canada calculated that approximately four million Canadians were living at or below the poverty level.<sup>1</sup> Similarly in Alberta, a comparatively prosperous province, "one family in every five lacks sufficient income to acquire the necessities of life".<sup>2</sup> Clearly, poverty in Alberta is a rather major social consideration.

Yet the poverty in Alberta (and indeed the rest of Canada) should not be equated with the poverty of the less developed countries. For it exists even though the present economic system is capable of generating a reasonable standard of living for all Canadians. "Poverty in the midst of plenty" wrote the late President Kennedy, "is a paradox that must not go unchallenged."<sup>3</sup>

## THE NEW CHARACTER OF POVERTY

Perhaps it was Galbraith who first articulated the distinction between the "old" style of poverty characteristic of, say, the depression years; and the "new" style of poverty in contemporary Canada. In The Affluent Society, he describes the poverty rampant in the 1930's as a "majority" poverty,<sup>4</sup> the general affliction of a great many unemployed workers. As such, this poverty was considered a manifestation of a failing economic system and the poor were a cause of much concern. Eventually, with wartime expansion, scores of people experienced a progressive movement toward affluence.

Today's poor, by contrast, have missed out on this political and social upgrading. Instead they remain a "minority" poor living in a society where the majority of the people are wealthy.

In Canada this means that, in spite of the ever increasing and massive productivity capacity, nearly 30 per cent of the population are excluded from the ever expanding comforts, opportunities, and self-respect afforded the majority.<sup>5</sup> In a study of poverty in Ontario, the Ontario Federation of Labour concludes that:





*. . . while automation, technological changes and new methods of production have raised the standard of living for the majority and have given meaning to the word "affluence", these same changes have created major economic problems for . . . a minority.<sup>6</sup>*

Why it is the Canadians allow poverty and all its attendant evils to persist in the face of general prosperity? Perhaps at least a partial answer to this question is provided by May when he describes a "communications gap" between the affluent and the poor:

*During the course of my research for The Wasted Americans, this lack of communication repeatedly was made clear to me. Whenever I talked to the lay members of a community I detected the absence of a frame of reference and a vagueness of the subject matter that often bordered on disbelief of its existence.<sup>7</sup>*

It is rather ironic that while the affluent society has become increasingly visible to the poor, the impoverished have become increasingly invisible to the affluent. This paradox has been described in a number of studies of poverty in Alberta. One study outlined some of the factors that specifically contribute to the invisibility of poverty in Alberta.<sup>8</sup> Another study endeavors to "make visible the poor of Alberta's urban areas".<sup>9</sup> Obviously, the increasing invisibility of the poor does much to sustain and perhaps even make worse the poverty situation.

There are a number of ways in which the poor have become virtually unrecognizable to the rest of their society. Clothes, for example, have done much to conceal the general prevalence of poverty. Because some of the benefits of mass production have filtered down to the poor, Canada is blessed with the best dressed poor the world has ever known.<sup>10</sup> Indeed it is infinitely easier to be well dressed than it is to be decently housed, nourished or doctored.

The tendency toward the segregation or, more precisely, ghettoization of the poor is yet another factor contributing to their general invisibility. If, in the past, the middle-class citizen did not like the sight, sound and smell of poverty, at least he was aware that it existed.

Today, by contrast, most Canadian cities are developing in a pattern that characteristically isolates the poor in the central inner core of the city. Inhabiting the dilapidated tenements and run-down shacks of these central districts, the poor are selectively removed from the living, emotional experience of the majority. Recent studies of the Edmonton and Calgary central core areas have produced evidence that supports the existence of this development.<sup>11</sup> In the Edmonton



study, for example, it was observed that:

*recent migrants to a large city often settle in the central area characterized by older and deteriorating housing, higher proportions of rental units, low value and rent levels . . . The housing environment in these areas remains regardless of the population turnover. It is obvious that a large number of people with inadequate means of livelihood are likely to settle in these areas, for there is no other "recovery" area that can meet these means.*<sup>12</sup>

Yet, perhaps the greatest misfortune of all, is the bitter realization that the poor are politically invisible. Since the roots of poverty are so diverse, the poor as a group tend to be collectively inarticulate:

*To a very great extent, ours is a society of pressure groups. At any given time, government policy will reflect the balance of power among the pressure groups. For too long, those at the bottom of the economic ladder have been left out of the social consensus because they failed to organize self-serving pressure groups.*<sup>13</sup>

It is one of the cruelist ironies of our times that the dispossessed at the bottom of the social ladder are the least capable of making their voice heard.

Still there are a multitude of other ways in which the poor are politically invisible. Being exceptionally difficult to organize, seldom do they belong to trade unions. Accordingly, the vast majority of jobs available to the poor are not even afforded the coverage of minimum wages legislation. Furthermore, the poor are rarely represented on public bodies such as school boards, urban renewal planning committees, utility regulatory commissions, welfare departments or even anti-poverty program boards. While the dictum of democracy - that the people should have a voice in the decisions which affect their lives - may be imperfectly realized for affluent Canada, for the poor it is only so much empty rhetoric.

HOW SHOULD POVERTY  
BE DEFINED AND  
MEASURED?

*In attempting to develop a working definition of poverty, the first thing we must bear in mind is that a highly precise definition is impossible. Economic deprivation and inequality are in their nature matters of degree: accordingly, one cannot fix precise levels below which there is poverty and above which there is not. Furthermore while it is relatively easy to measure income and expenditure levels, the more subjective aspects of poverty are much more difficult, perhaps impossible, to quantify. Finally, since poverty is considered to be an undesirable state, an element of value judgement is involved when we attempt to delimit it.*<sup>14</sup>



Poverty is a generic term that almost invariably involves many diverse interpretations. As such, it is necessary to specify some frame of reference by which to approach this rather uncertain concept. Traditionally, poverty has been perceived as a problem of the poor - a condition of the individual pauper and not as a characteristic of social life in general. It was only in the last half of the nineteenth century that people began to think of poverty as a product of society. Since that time there has been a continuing trend toward conceptualizing poverty as a social phenomenon, with its causes and remedies contained within the larger social environment.

Today the most common definitions of poverty stress the adequacy (or, more specifically, inadequacy) of income as the distinguishing characteristic of poor individuals or families. That is, below some specified "poverty line" individuals are thought to have insufficient income to meet the minimum daily needs of life; and above which, it is held, people are capable of meeting such needs. The "poverty line", and the number of poor, will thus fluctuate according to the assumptions as to what constitutes the "daily needs of life" and the current cost of obtaining such needs (see, for example, the following table):

POVERTY LINES ADJUSTED BY VARIOUS AGENCIES <sup>15</sup>

Family Size	Dominion Bureau of Statistics 1967	Economic Council of Canada 1968	Ontario Department of Treasury & Economic 1969
1 person	\$1,740	\$1,800	\$1,900
2 persons	2,900	3,000	3,160
3 persons	3,480	3,600	3,790
4 persons	4,060	4,200	4,430
5+ persons	4,640	4,800	5,060

In 1961, for instance, The Economic Council of Canada (using as a classification of "poor" single persons with incomes of less than \$1500, families of two with less than \$2500, and families of three, four, and five or more with incomes of less than \$3000, \$3500, and \$4000 respectively) estimated that there were some 916,000 non-farm families, 150,000 farm families,<sup>16</sup> and 416,000 individuals not







attached<sup>17</sup> to families whose incomes were below the minimum levels. The total number of persons involved in these groups consisted of some 4,750,000 Canadians or approximately 29 per cent of the 1961 population.

At one time virtually all definitions of poverty were centered on some income criterion, since the census data readily supplied this type of information. Invariably the resulting definitions failed to take into consideration such crucial concerns as the differing "needs" of families of varying sizes; the differing stages in the life cycle of the poor; or differing regional and geographic locations (to mention a few). Accordingly the strict application of the \$3000 poverty-line criterion gives the impression that a very large female headed Indian family receiving \$4000 per year in welfare payments is inherently more affluent than a small prairie farm family who are earning only \$2500 per year. Quite obviously, such a definition overlooks the specific "needs" of particular families; the past accumulation of net assets; the real but non-monetary incomes (e.g., the financial benefit accruing to families who own their own land and do not have to pay rent); the fluctuating budgetary abilities of various families; or the changes in the cost of living through time. Furthermore, it should be remembered that:

*Data giving a complete picture of a family's economic status are rarely available. For that reason it seems impractical to propose a poverty criterion that would combine current income with some direct measure of net worth. However, it may be possible to build into the poverty line based on current income some allowance for the observed differences in net worth that are closely associated with certain family characteristics and thus make the resulting classification on the average correspond more closely with low economic status.*<sup>18</sup>

It would appear that a "budgetary standard" approach, such as the one proposed by Podoluk, has potentially more flexibility and practicability for measuring poverty<sup>19</sup> than does the conventional gross annual income approach. Using this procedure, the well-being of families is measured by ascertaining the amount of discretionary income left after expenditures on basic necessities. Families are considered to be "poor" if they are forced to allocate more than 70 per cent of the family income on the basic necessities of food, clothing and shelter. Perhaps the most important issue involved in this approach is the question of whether the 30 per cent of income not allotted to food, clothing and shelter is actually adequate to cover the other family needs - health care, school expenses, transportation, recreation, insurance, etc. In the view of The Economic Council of Canada:



*In absolute dollar terms -- the difference in the amounts spent -- the poor are most deprived of sufficient food, clothing, shelter and transportation. However, viewing the expenditures of the poor as a percentage of the expenditures of the non-poor, those living in poverty are most deprived, in a relative sense, of transportation, of recreation, of furnishings and equipment, of reading materials, of medical care, of personal care, of clothing and of items to complement the formal education system.<sup>20</sup>*

While the employment of the "budgetary standard" approach for determining poverty is becoming increasingly accepted, its application in Canada is restricted quite severely by the lack of relevant data on consumer expenditures. This is particularly the case in Alberta where data of this nature is not generally available. As a consequence, it is often necessary to infer the general prevalence of poverty from less precise indicators, such as taxation returns. The following table provides provincial taxation data for the year 1966. It is rather interesting to note that in Alberta more than two-thirds of the income tax returns declared incomes of \$5000 or less.

#### Income Distribution by Province, 1966 <sup>21</sup>

Income Brackets	Alta.	B.C.	Sask.	Man.	Ont.	Que.	N.B.	N.S.	P.E.I.	Nfld.
Under \$1,000	12.5	9.9	12.4	13.3	10.7	10.5	15.7	14.6	15.6	17.3
\$1000 - 1,500	7.5	6.5	7.7	8.2	6.2	6.6	8.5	7.9	12.4	10.6
\$1,500 - 2,000	7.5	6.4	8.1	7.5	6.2	6.6	9.2	8.7	12.1	8.4
\$2,000 - 2,500	7.4	6.6	8.9	8.4	6.4	7.2	8.7	9.1	10.8	8.5
\$2,500 - 3,000	7.9	6.3	8.2	8.0	6.8	7.8	8.8	9.1	10.7	8.3
\$3,000 - 3,500	7.1	6.5	7.9	7.5	7.0	8.3	7.9	8.1	8.4	7.8
\$3,500 - 4,000	6.4	5.8	6.8	6.8	6.7	7.8	7.6	8.1	6.6	6.6
\$4,000 - 4,500	5.9	5.7	6.4	6.7	6.3	7.5	6.5	6.8	5.8	6.5
\$4,500 - 5,000	5.9	5.9	5.6	6.1	6.4	6.6	5.8	5.8	3.9	5.6
1,000 to 5,000	55.6	49.7	59.6	59.2	52.0	58.4	63.0	63.6	70.7	62.3
\$5,000 - 5,500	5.5	6.3	5.0	5.4	6.0	5.9	4.7	4.7	3.0	4.2
\$5,500 - 6,000	4.6	5.7	4.2	4.6	5.7	4.8	3.4	3.8	2.0	3.2
\$6,000 - 6,500	3.7	5.0	3.5	3.7	5.0	4.1	2.8	3.0	1.7	2.3
\$6,500 - 7,000	3.3	4.6	2.7	2.6	4.1	3.2	2.3	1.9	1.2	2.1
\$7,000 - 7,500	2.6	3.7	2.2	2.2	3.1	2.5	1.4	1.6	0.9	1.6
\$7,500 - 8,000	2.1	2.7	1.8	1.5	2.4	1.8	1.4	1.3	0.7	1.3
\$8,000 - 8,500	1.7	2.3	1.5	1.3	1.8	1.5	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.9
\$8,500 - 9,000	1.4	1.6	1.1	1.0	1.5	1.1	0.7	0.8	0.4	0.8
\$9,000 - 9,500	0.8	1.3	0.9	0.8	1.1	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.7
\$9,500 - 10,000	0.9	1.2	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.4



\$5,000 to 10,000	26.6	34.4	23.7	23.6	31.6	26.4	18.6	18.9	11.3	17.5
\$10,000-15,000	3.5	4.2	3.0	2.6	3.8	2.9	1.6	1.8	1.3	2.0
\$15,000-20,000	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.9	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.4
\$20,000-25,000	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
\$25,000 & over	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2
\$0,000 to 25,000 & over	5.0	5.9	4.2	4.0	5.7	4.6	2.6	2.9	2.2	2.7

But poverty, it should be realized, is much more than an economic fact with which the poor must live. To define poverty in such narrow economic terms is to miss out on much of the essence of what it means to be "poor". The poor share a characteristic life style, a "culture of poverty", involving "strong feelings of marginality, of helplessness, of dependency, of not belonging."<sup>22</sup>

*The culture of poverty is both an adaptation and a reaction of the poor to their marginal position in a class-stratified highly individuated, capitalistic society. It represents an effort to cope with a feeling of hopelessness and despair which develop from the realization of the improbability of achieving success in terms of the values and goals of the larger society.*<sup>23</sup>

If the culture of poverty is more than an interesting metaphor, what are the possible implications it has for initiating anti-poverty policy in Canada? That is, is it possible that a lot of our failure to deal efficiently and effectively with the problems of poverty evolve from our fundamentally "ethno-centric" approach to poverty - an approach that simply does not work with people who hold dramatically different values?

Another highly significant but little explored aspect of poverty relates to the condition of dependence. If poverty is, in effect, a condition of enforced dependence, is it not necessary to understand the factors of dependence, the subjective realities, and the world-view(s) of the poor? Invariably the people who have the resources and power fail to see the impact of their power on the lives of the people who are being controlled. The logical extension of this is the more basic failure to comprehend the subjective aspects of the dependencies as experienced from the dependent's point of view. A case in point is the welfare recipient:

*Our current welfare system does more to perpetuate poverty than to alleviate it. It does so by creating and reinforcing*





*the total dependency of the recipient upon the agencies which support him. The agencies make the rules and set the conditions. The recipient, in return for a guaranteed subsistence in poverty, gives up his independence, his responsibilities, his pride, and his self-determination. With his life so totally divided up, parcelled out, programmed into regulations, and rules from the mysterious labyrinth of the bureaucracies, is it any wonder that the poor man ceases to function as a man and is soon incapable of independent action. Our welfare system is not saving or even aiding lives - it is dividing them up and buying the pieces.*<sup>24</sup>

All too often members of the larger society confuse reactions as symptoms of dependence with reactions as symptoms of "laziness" or "stupidity".

Possibly what is most required is a new approach to defining the poor - an approach that takes into consideration social goals and social realities. Undoubtedly, such a definition would extend far beyond mere biological maintenance to involve individual fulfillment as well as satisfactory participation in the larger society.

Poverty, in conclusion, is very much a relative thing. In Canada, the problem of poverty is not so much the sheer lack of essentials to sustain life as it is the insufficient access to various goods, services, and conditions of life that are generally available to the majority of Canadians.

It should by now be abundantly clear that the total number of poor in Alberta is less important than the fact that poverty does exist. No precise measure - no precise definition - of poverty is needed, ". . . save as a tactic for countering the intellectual obstructionist . . ." <sup>25</sup> Definitions of poverty are merely classificatory systems designed to supplement particular program or policy requirements.

## WHO ARE THE POOR?

In the nineteenth century the poor were essentially the employed who, because of inadequate remuneration for their efforts, lived under the most desperate of circumstances. This was modified in the 1930's when poverty became synonymous with unemployment and the poor consisted of a vast mass of urban and rural peoples who had no form of economic support in a society with only meager welfare arrangements. Today, by contrast, the poor are clearly a much more heterogeneous group. For somewhat pragmatic purposes it is possible to conceptualize the poor in Canada as falling into three rather general categories:<sup>26</sup>

- (1) those for whom the economy has failed to provide sufficient jobs;
- (2) those whose ability to contribute to the process of production is insufficient;





- (3) those whose opportunities to participate in the productive process are restricted by discrimination of various kinds.

Each of these will be discussed briefly.

## The Unemployed

The basic goals of the Canadian economy as set down by Parliament in legislation establishing the Economic Council of Canada are: the attainment of full employment, a high rate of economic growth, reasonable price stability, a viable balance of payments, and an equitable distribution of rising incomes.<sup>27</sup> Because the simultaneous attainment of these goals is sometimes contradictory, it often becomes necessary to emphasize certain goals at the expense of others. In recent months this has been the case with regard to employment and inflation, with the government deciding to tolerate a relatively high level of unemployment in an attempt to curb rising inflation.

One of the primary reasons for the coexistence of unemployment and inflation relates specifically to the nature of the structural imbalances in the Canadian economy. To a large extent, these make it possible for an unfulfilled demand for certain kinds of goods, services, raw materials, machinery and labour to force prices up; while, at the same time, an excess supply of certain other commodities manifests itself in stock-piling and involuntary idleness rather than price reductions. Such imbalances reflect, for the most part, structural changes (primarily in labour demand) that have not been adequately accommodated by structural adjustment on the labour supply side.

While the impending difficulties of unemployment, inequality and poverty may be short-run phenomena, there is growing evidence to indicate that they might well be suggestive of longer-term societal and economic changes.

In order to understand the full significance of this development it is necessary to examine things like the structure of unemployment rather than merely the number of unemployed as a percentage of the total labour force. The following table, showing the relation between poverty and level of education in 1961, should illustrate this point.



The Educational Structure of Poverty Among  
Heads and Unattached Individuals, 1961

	Percentage Distribution by Educational Background		Poverty Incidence at Each Level of Education
	Low Income Families %	All Families %	%
No schooling or elementary schooling	66.0	46.2	41.6
Secondary 1-3 years .....	23.1	29.0	23.1
Secondary 4-5 years .....	8.0	15.8	14.6
Some University .....	1.8	4.0	13.0
University Degree .....	1.1	5.0	6.7
	-----	-----	-----
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	29.1
	-----	-----	-----

From the above table, it should be clear that there is a strong correlation between the attained level of education and the incidence of poverty (or the probability of being poor). In a period of rapid transition (in which economic processes, social institutions, and relations amongst individuals and groups change significantly), people with only elementary education are at a marked disadvantage. In the future, responsiveness to accelerating changes in all areas of life, along with the capacity for learning and re-learning emerging technological skills, will likely prove the minimum prerequisites for economic security, social maturity and independence. Unfortunately, it is precisely the poor who are furthest away from realizing this ideal. Instead, there is accumulating evidence to suggest the gradual formulation of what has been described as developing "class unemployment":

*Class unemployment is important because it hits particular groups and groups that are economically least able to withstand unemployment and least able to recover from its effect. Increases in class unemployment essentially measure the extent to which our society is rejecting and excluding an increasing number of its members. It is here in these individuals, that poverty and unemployment are webbed. Class unemployment is made up primarily of those individuals whom our society, with its technical and cultural changes, has either displaced or never placed.<sup>29</sup>*

As Canadian society becomes more and more technical and specialized, those who learn to operate the new technologies - who receive the necessary job training and educational expertise - will undoubtedly approach affluence. The poor, however, who habitually lack the educational qualifications necessary for such social mobility, will become increasingly condemned to the expanding economic underworld. The significance of this development is widespread and the consequences, for all Canadians, should not be underestimated.



## Persons in Marginal Occupations

The second category of poor is composed of those people whose overall contribution to the process of production is generally considered insufficient. Because the productive capacity of persons in this group is characterized by what Galbraith calls "low marginal urgency", they become increasingly expendable in the process of production.<sup>29</sup> To a great extent these are the "marginal workers" and it is precisely their inability to contribute substantially to the productive process that intensifies their poverty. Included in this group are the aged, the young, the rural poor and the employed poor. Each of these general groups will be discussed briefly.

## The aged

The status of the aged is considered first primarily because it is often the best indicator of the extent to which a society has mastered the problem of poverty in general. To begin with, the phenomena of aging is essentially confined to modern, industrial societies. It is here that the advantages of greatly improved medicine, public health, sanitation, and generally better living and working conditions have made it possible for a large segment of the population to live a comparatively long time.

Thus in Canada the aged constitute a fairly significant proportion of the total population. In 1968, for example, it was estimated that approximately 7.7 per cent of Canada's population was comprised of persons aged 65 or over.<sup>31</sup> Of these 1,604,700 people, approximately 45 per cent (using Economic Council of Canada criteria) were at or below the poverty line - about 16 per cent of the total "poor" population in Canada. It is important to realize that, while the aged constitute a significant segment of the total population, they are by no means proportionally represented in the labour force. For it is another anomaly that as the proportion of the aged in the population has gradually increased, their proportional involvement in the labour force has gradually decreased. Consequently, whereas in 1941 some 50 per cent of the male population aged 65 and over were employed in the labour force,<sup>32</sup> by 1961 this ratio had diminished to approximately one-third. In a social system which insists on economic self-sufficiency as the fundamental requirement for individual well-being and human dignity, the resultant consequences of this development could prove disastrous.

In recent years increased interest has been expressed in the general status and well-being of the aged. In 1964, for example, a Senior Residents Survey was conducted in Edmonton to ascertain the general life style and status of the aged. On a broader level, the Canadian Conference on Aging (1966), the Provincial Conference on Aging (1967), the appointment and subsequent report of the Special Senate Committee on Aging (1966), and the formation of the Alberta Council on Aging, have done much to sensitize Canadians to the problems of the older person.







Still, with retirement age continuously declining and life expectancy continuously increasing, the prospects for the future do not appear good. Indeed, it seems inevitable that future generations will be spending an even greater portion of their lives in the state of retirement. Assuming things remain unchanged, the net increase in the number of years a person is in the "retired status" category (and presumably with limited economic means) will undoubtedly lead to further generations of "aged" poor - for the longer the average person lives in the state of retirement the greater are his or her chances of becoming poor.

The young

It has been noted that of the 7 million children in Canada under the age of 16 in 1966, approximately 1.6 million (or 23 per cent) of them belonged to families considered to be "poor".<sup>33</sup> In terms of the total population of poor, possibly something in the neighbourhood of 40 per cent are children under 16 years of age. Quite obviously, many young Canadians are beginning life in a condition of inherited poverty, which characteristically limits their physical and mental development. For the children of the poor are hostages to an environment that breeds continued and habitual impoverishment. Accordingly, the extent to which poverty in Canada is actually becoming generational is of paramount importance, for it could indicate the crystallization of a more enduring "culture of poverty".

Because of the numerous deficiencies in his environment, the impoverished child is almost invariably deprived of a wide range of stimuli in such a way that his general development is affected adversely. For the most part, these privations fall into the following somewhat arbitrary categories:<sup>34</sup>

- (i) physical privations - relate to the minimum bodily requirements of food, clothing, medicine, etc.
- (ii) sensorial privations - relate to the lack of sufficient stimulation imperative to the normal development of the senses, e.g., lack of variety (form and colour), scarcity of toys, little organization of time and space.
- (iii) language privations - relate to the general poverty of vocabulary, simplified syntax, poor pronunciation, slowness of learning to speak, -- all of which are, more or less, manifestations of unsatisfactory social contacts and lack of verbal communication between the parents.
- (iv) emotional privations - relate to the high incidence of incomplete and broken families, lack of attention from parents, poor relations between parents, as well as the emotional insecurity resulting from frequent moving, etc.



- (v) social and cultural privations - relate to the ideas, attitudes and behavior patterns which evolve from the "poverty culture" and which hinder the capacities of the impoverished child to break out of the poverty complex.

In a recent study conducted by the Edmonton Public School Board it was shown that elementary school children who were "poor" consistently scored lower on standardized reading and arithmetic achievement tests than did children who were "not poor".<sup>35</sup> "The same child if brought up in a culturally deprived environment may have an I.Q. of 80, whereas in an environment favorable to his development, his I.Q. may attain 120".<sup>36</sup>

This insight is essential for education. A teacher, in order to "reach" an impoverished child, must learn to relate to that child in terms of what he or she brings into the classroom. Essentially this would involve the implementation of a system of "compensatory education" that would try to offset the shattering impact of cultural deprivation, stimulus deprivation, and social disadvantage.

What, then, does it really mean to be a child growing up in an impoverished Canadian family? To a large degree, it means learning to grow up incompletely - deprived of a wide variety of experiences that are generally available to children of higher income families. Still, this is not to mention the inadequate services, insufficient professional resources, out-of-date equipment and facilities, that tend to be as poor as the poor themselves.

It is not surprising, in conclusion, to find a high proportion of school failures, school dropouts, reading and learning disabilities, and personal life adjustment problems among socially impoverished children. Unable to utilize their most accessible spring-board from poverty - education - today's young become the potential candidates for tomorrow's adult poor class.

e rural farm poor

*Many people still believe that basic economic needs of farmers are much less than those of urban people. They incorrectly assume that farmers do not need as much take-home pay because they (farmers) can live off the land. While this may have been the case a few decades ago, the rural scene has changed greatly in recent years. Rural people are just as concerned about a standard of living, both economically and socially, as their urban counterparts.*

*Poverty is not only the lack of essentials to sustain life, but also lack of access to certain goods, services, and conditions of life which are available to others.<sup>37</sup>*



In a recent report on the lower income sector of Canadian agriculture it was noted that approximately one-third of the 430,000 farmers in Canada were in dire poverty and required immediate income supplements.<sup>38</sup> Another third were slightly better off but were still in need of periodic assistance; while only one-third were economically stable.

The situation in Alberta isn't much brighter. Assuming, for example, a non-taxable farm family to be living in poverty, more than one-half of Alberta's 59,185 farmers, filing income tax returns in 1968, could be considered poor. (See the following table).

Individual Taxation Statistics of all Alberta  
Farm Returns, Taxation Years 1962 & 1968

Income Class	Number	Total Income	Number	Total Income
		\$'000 (Taxable Returns)		\$'000
		1968		1962
Under - \$2,000	2,610	3,796	1,899	2,849
\$2,000 - 3,000	4,521	11,504	3,997	9,800
3,000 - 4,000	5,195	18,081	4,390	15,072
4,000 - 5,000	4,281	49,134	3,262	14,253
5,000 - 6,000	3,505	10,060	1,925	10,314
6,000 - 7,000	2,133	13,842	1,350	8,615
7,000 - 8,000	1,870	13,008	727	5,339
8,000 - 9,000	1,443	12,241	562	4,734
9,000 - 10,000	1,036	9,793	423	4,091
10,000 - 15,000	2,228	26,772	797	9,460
15,000 - 20,000	700	11,826	210	3,591
20,000 - 25,000	188	4,124	65	1,442
25,000 & over	214	7,602	66	2,129
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>29,924</b>	<b>171,742</b>	<b>19,673</b>	<b>91,689</b>
		(Non-Taxable Returns)		
Under 2,000	19,774	6,407	18,308	10,891
2,000 - 3,000	6,615	16,301	7,910	19,049
3,000 - Over	2,872	13,077	3,317	13,430
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>29,261</b>	<b>35,785</b>	<b>29,637</b>	<b>43,370</b>
		(All Returns)		
Under - 000	12,078	5,300	8,913	2,790
\$1,000-2,000	10,306	15,503	11,366	10,530
2,000-3,000	11,136	27,905	11,937	28,909
3,000-4,000	6,875	23,799		
4,000-5,000	4,881	21,779	17,094	92,410
5,000 - over	13,909	123,942		
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>59,185</b>	<b>207,528</b>	<b>49,310</b>	<b>135,059</b>





Just recently Hugh Bryce, a statistician with the Department of Agriculture, reported that the annual net income for an Alberta farmer in 1970 was \$1325;<sup>40</sup> 69 per cent of the 65,000 farmers actually had incomes below this meagre average. Unquestionably, rural farm poverty is a problem of great magnitude and severity in Alberta.

unemployed poor

The complex mythology surrounding poverty is probably one of the foremost deterrents to an expedient attempt at solution. Contrary to the popular notion of the lazy and shiftless poor who will not work, fully two-thirds of the families considered to be "poor" in 1961 derived the majority of their income from wages, salaries and self-employment.<sup>41</sup> This statistic demonstrates, rather conclusively, that many Canadians are "poor" simply because the income they receive from their employment is insufficient to provide an acceptable standard of living.

To a large extent, this illustrates the dilemma of low productivity and marginality. Unable to contribute significantly to the process of production, low productivity workers are compensated with generally inadequate incomes. Insignificant incomes, in turn, are a fundamental factor in the continuance of poverty.

discrimination

The final category of poor includes all those minorities who are restricted by discrimination from fully participating in the functions of society. In Canada this group consists primarily of the Indian, the Metis, and the Eskimo. While discrimination is not exclusive to these groups, they are perhaps the most typical of this category of poor.

Like any other minority group, however, they cannot be realistically studied except in relation to the larger majority.

While native peoples constitute a relatively small proportion of the total Canadian population (about one per cent), they are proportionally over-represented in the social problems milieu. In the following table, for example, whereas the average age at death for all Canadian in 1965 was a little over 62 years, the average for Indian males was only 33.3 and for females 34.7.





## SELECTED VITAL STATISTICS

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## TOTAL POPULATION AND CANADIAN INDIANS

CANADA: MARCH 31, 1965

	<u>Total population</u>	<u>Indian</u>
Population	18,896,000	218,0
Births per 1,000 population	24.4	40.
Deaths per 1,000 population	7.8	10.
Stillbirths per 1,000 livebirths	12.3	15.
Infant deaths per 1,000 livebirths	26.3	70.
Average age at death - males	60.5	33.
Average age at death - females	64.1	34.

Furthermore, the difficulty that Native peoples experience in acquiring employment - employment that might afford them some measure of self-respect and dignity - is closely associated with certain discriminatory practices on the part of the larger white majority. Although there are few statistics available for Canada, an analysis of salary differentials in the United States (using variables such as background, experience, skill training and education) revealed that, on the average, non-whites received \$900 less per year for their efforts than did whites.<sup>44</sup>

In many ways the absence of poverty information on Native peoples is typical of the status of Canadian poverty research in general. In Alberta, for example, there is a lack of systematic, longitudinal data on demographic, social and psychological characteristics of Native peoples.<sup>45</sup> While there are a good many programs initiated on behalf of Native peoples, most are without an acceptable baseline of information, so that the systematic evaluation of such programs is next to impossible. As a result, most programs are revised (and new programs devised) without ever examining appropriate measures of program efficiency or effectiveness.



## THE SELF-REINFORCING NATURE OF POVERTY

The poor are caught up in what has been appropriately termed a "syndrome of mutually reinforcing handicaps".<sup>46</sup> On a day-to-day basis this means that a poor person is caught up in a vicious cycle of debilitating circumstances, over which he or she has little control. Stated in another way, Canadian society is personified by a number of institutional structures and interactional relations which function to effectively prevent the poor from climbing out of the poverty situation. For the most part, the most significant of the factors reinforcing and perpetuating poverty in contemporary Canada are: (1) current ecological and demographic trends; (2) inadequate community resources; (3) patterns of discrimination; (4) a limited opportunity structure; and (5) various agency-client relations.

## Ecological and Demographic Trends

One of the most significant trends in modern urban development (and of particular importance to researchers of poverty) relates to what has been described as the "exodus to suburbia".<sup>47</sup> In the United States, where this phenomena is most evident, this development has been interpreted as an emerging political and residential apartheid<sup>48</sup>

While the situation is much less extreme in Canada, this is in all likelihood a question of scale. Cities such as Calgary and Edmonton, for example, are already experiencing the infant stages of this progression - and the aftermath of this development has definite implications for the poor. To begin with, the poor become increasingly ghettoized in the central sector of the city, where they are so socially and physically isolated as to be virtually "invisible". In many cases, urban renewal patterns function to reinforce this segregation of the poor. By replacing older, dilapidated dwellings with newer, higher-cost housing (most of which the lower-income families cannot afford), the poor are forced to inhabit an ever-shrinking area of already over-crowded slum housing. Furthermore, the corresponding reduction in the tax base (a normal result of the exodus) does much to restrict the amount of resources available for community investment. Accordingly, in the case of education for example, this leads to deteriorated school facilities, inadequate supplies, ill-equipped or unqualified teachers - all of which handicap the development of children already in great need of specialized educational resources.

## Inadequate Community Resources

The poor are not only deficient in monetary terms but also in obtaining access to the special resources of the community. This is particularly evident (and fairly well documented) with regard to adequate medical care, housing, credit and legal services. A few examples should be enough to illustrate this point.



Statistics from a wide variety of sources indicate that the poor get sick more often, take longer to recover, seek and receive less medical, dental and hospital treatment, and suffer far more disabling consequences than do people with larger incomes. Thus, in a recent study of 28,000 adult welfare recipients in Montreal it was discovered that only 3,800 were actually fit to work.<sup>49</sup> Having the breadwinner become ill or disabled is a tragedy for any family; but for the poor, who are generally unprotected by savings and medical insurance, it is essentially a total disaster.

Similarly, the poor are inclined to be extremely inefficient consumers. This is a consequence of a number of factors: the exceedingly complex and sophisticated nature of contemporary products; the lack of sufficient knowledge for product evaluation (which is the more or less inevitable consequence of the low-reading skills, certain psychological predispositions, and inadequate incomes of the poor); and, the general cast of mind, characteristic of most low-income consumers, which renders them vulnerable to misleading advertising, high pressure sales tactics, and outright fraud.<sup>50</sup>

Low visibility of services has been listed as a major factor deterring the full effectiveness of existing legal aid assistance.<sup>51</sup> Stated quite simply, most indigents were unaware of the existence of legal aid, and fewer still were aware of how to actually obtain it. To what extent does this consideration apply to the legal aid services (and indeed all other social services for the poor) in Alberta? Unfortunately the question is largely unanswerable, since this dimension has seldom been examined in the evaluation of social services in Alberta.

#### Patterns of Discrimination

- \* 75 per cent of families had earned income of less than \$2,000 per year.
- \* 45 per cent of families had earned income of less than \$1,000 per year.
- \* Unemployment is eight to ten times the national average.
- \* Relief spending has trebled in five years to \$9,000,000.
- \* 36 per cent of families need relief each year, ten times the national average.
- \* More than half the families live in fewer than three rooms.
- \* Fewer than one family in ten has indoor plumbing.
- \* Mortality rates are high in comparison with the national average: adult, three times; teen-age, twice; school-age, three times; pre-school, eight times.
- \* Need for hospital care is twice.<sup>52</sup>

These few simple statistics do much to communicate the consequence of discrimination in Canada. Clearly, in the case of the Canadian Indian, a self-perpetuating pattern of poverty (embodied in a heritage of social and economic deprivation) is further augmented by the practice of discrimination.





On a somewhat different level, discriminatory barriers are also present in the labour force. Women, for example, experience considerable difficulty in gaining acceptance into certain of the occupations; just as persons who are older, handicapped or in possession of a police record are frequently refused employment for other than job-related reasons. By excluding a person from full societal participation, discrimination closes many channels of individual fulfillment and self-development that are generally accessible to the majority of Canadians. It is in this respect that discrimination makes worse the poverty condition.

#### A Limited Opportunity Structure

Poverty in Canada is reinforced to a large degree by an opportunity structure which places the poor at a competitive disadvantage in their struggle to achieve an acceptable standard of living. For many reasons, the poor simply do not have equal opportunity to participate in the social, economic, and political processes which shape the nature and direction of their lives. To a large degree, the realities of this development are reflected in comparative income data. In Canada, over the past two decades, the poorest fifth of the population has tended to receive about 5 to 6 per cent of the total national income, while the wealthiest fifth has received around 40 per cent.<sup>53</sup>

Although explanations of poverty must ultimately express themselves in economics, there are a number of other factors which contribute to the continued lack of opportunities (social, economic and political) experienced by the poor. With respect to education, for example, an ever-increasing number of studies indicate a rather disturbing degree of inequality of educational opportunity.<sup>54</sup> A rather excellent discussion of the degree of inequality of educational opportunity (in an Alberta-specific context) is contained within a report by Stephen G. Peitchinis entitled Equality and Inequality of Opportunity for Economic and Social Development.<sup>55</sup>

On a broader scale, the whole question of inequality of opportunity and its corresponding impact on the development of human resources is the central focus of the recent Alberta White Paper.<sup>56</sup> To the extent that some Albertans are excluded from participating to the fullest extent of their abilities, requirements and potentialities, the human resources development is less than complete.

#### Agency - Client Relationships

The poor are frequently made to relate to the larger society through an intricate network of bureaucratic social services, offering various forms of specialized assistance. Intrinsic to many of these agency-client relationships are recurring handicaps which deter the effectiveness of this attempt to deal with poverty. To begin with there is the ever-present problem of coordination:



*(T)he present patchwork nature of the service system has been spotlighted, forcing a search for more effective ways to provide them on a coordinated comprehensive basis. These developments in turn have brought into question the provision of social welfare services to all who need them on a universal basis. Many organizations and groups, including organized groups of welfare recipients and clients, interested in the establishment of social rights have not been inarticulate on these matters also. To provide a better voice for the poor and for minority groups, the federal welfare ministry organized a new National Council on Welfare in 1969.<sup>57</sup>*

Another consideration is the extent to which the total social service package is actually sufficient to meet the demands of the poor. More specifically, does an individual agency have sufficient resources to meaningfully meet the requirements of its clients? All too frequently social services are made to compete with a variety of interest groups for whatever resources are available, usually with the following result:

*Because agencies and Departments of Governments are competing for money and have to account for every penny there is little room for new ideas and experiments. Support is usually cut off when located, even if the service might be better. Because there are strict rules and regulations and guide lines to follow, most social workers are first dedicated to the establishment and second to the client.<sup>58</sup>*

Another closely related difficulty concerns the procedure employed in determining the specific allocation of the social service "pie". Because outmoded and, in some cases, unrealistic formulas are sometimes used, it is perfectly possible for agencies who are relatively unimportant in the reduction of poverty to receive the lion's share of the available resources.

But perhaps the greatest deterrent to effective agency-client relations revolves around the general spirit of pessimism generated by the bureaucratic rigidity of many social service agencies. For more efficient record-keeping purposes, the activities of the poor very often become controlled and monitored and depersonalized. Consequently, the client develops an attitude of futility (perhaps even hostility) toward the agency worker - who in time comes to symbolize his frustrations and resentment rather than represent a potential avenue of assistance.

There appears to be, in conclusion, ample proof of the existence of forces within the larger Canadian society which sustain and augment the presence of poverty. Any attempt to eliminate poverty will, necessarily, require a critical re-examination of these many institutional structures and social relations which predispose an individual (either directly or indirectly) to a life of poverty.





# SOME MISCONCEPTIONS CONCERNING THE POOR

*For the great enemy of the truth is very often not the lie -- deliberate, contrived and dishonest -- but the myth -- persistent, persuasive, and unrealistic.*<sup>59</sup>

To a large extent, much of our understanding (or, more precisely, misunderstanding) of the poor comes from a series of stereotypes and myths concerning lower-class life in general.

It would seem that there are at least three distinct misconceptions particular to the poor. The first of these has to do with our predisposition for attributing the attitude and behavior patterns of the poor to some imperfection in the individual, rather than to the infinite stresses and strains generated from the poverty situation. In a society where cardinal emphasis is placed on the individual's ability to master his environment, not enough consideration is given to the forces (structural and situational) which shape the poor person's reality. As such, it is not all that surprising to find many attempts to alleviate poverty still aimed at the rehabilitation of the individual, when, in all likelihood, they should be directed at the rehabilitation of a society which cannot adequately accommodate that individual.

A second rather widespread misconception has it that lower-class life as being essentially unorganized or disorganized. This is due primarily to the fact that at a community level there appears to be little organization beyond the extended nuclear family. As such, many of the more affluent Canadians assume the poor are in the practice of letting their children run wild, of being promiscuous, and of living without any real degree of organization or predictability. This failure to see traces of social organization in the poverty environment should not, however, be taken to mean that all such organization is necessarily absent. For often the organization existing in the slums is of a kind which is not readily intelligible to the middle-class observer; since, very often, such forms of organization have no prototype in middle-class life. Thus, while leadership may exist it is all too often a leadership which is totally unfamiliar (perhaps even repugnant) to the middle-class observer - like the leader of a rent strike or the grass-roots organizer of a civil liberties movement.

A further misunderstanding of poverty involves the goals of the poor as well as the means employed to attain such goals. Here again, it is clear that most Canadians are simply unaware of the realities of the poverty situation. For just as affluence does much to dictate the goals of the middle-class, so too is poverty instrumental in shaping the goals of the poor. When economic resources are unpredictable, it becomes necessary to emphasize subsistence rather than achievement. The latter is only feasible when the former has been assured. Middle-class Canadians often overlook this elemental aspect of lower-class reality.

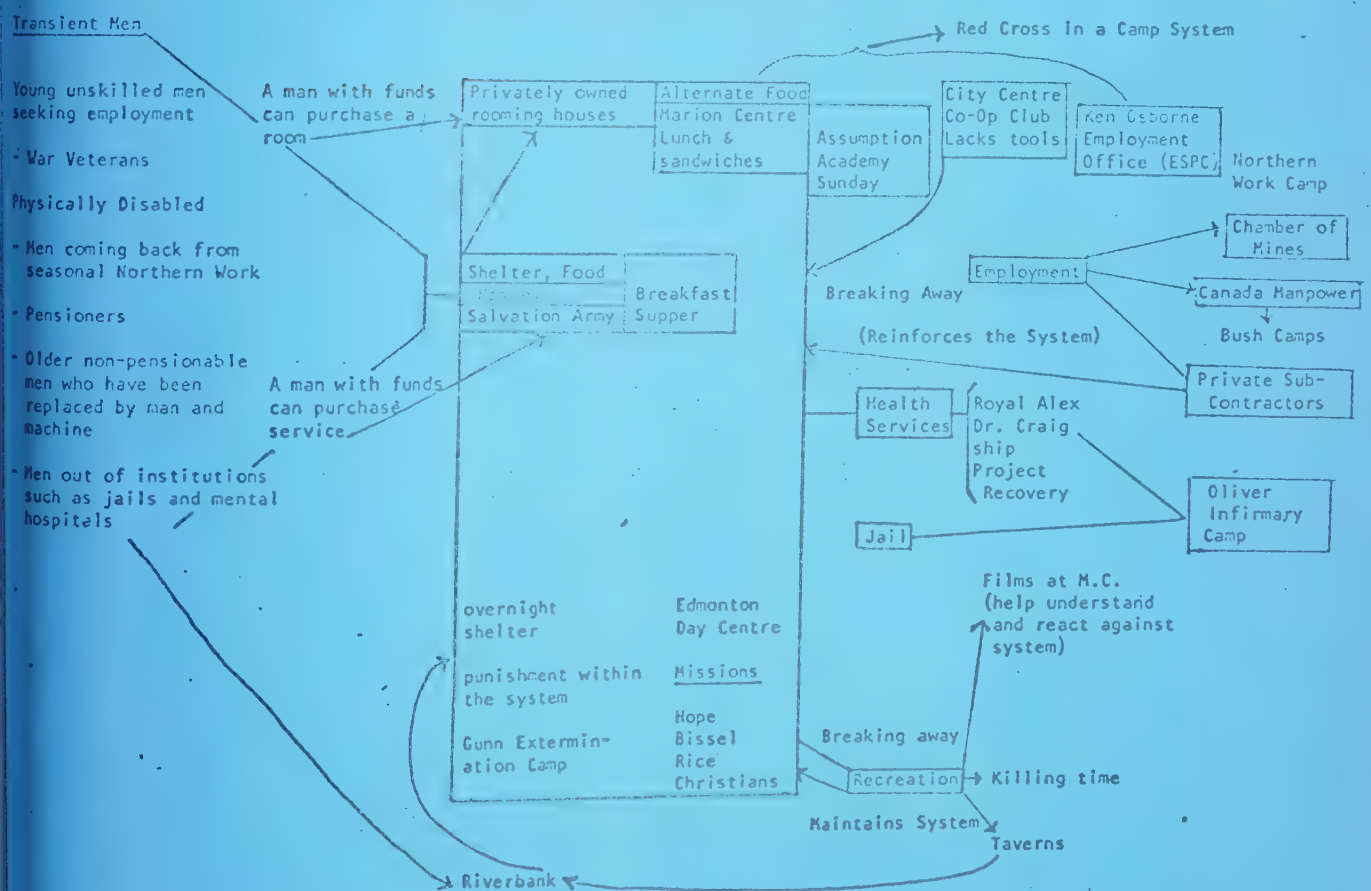


In the same way, the means established by the poor in order to achieve their goals, are also a reflection of reality (the poverty reality). The average middle-classer, for example, is surrounded by a world in which education pays off - where the materially wealthy stand as open attestments to that fact. In lower-class life, by contrast, there is a relative absence of such referential working models, so that the poor person is more likely to recognize the futility of pursuing a second class education in a second rate school system. The following model of poverty as a "closed system" appears to come exceptionally close to incorporating a fundamental appreciation of the many insurmountable obstacles confronting the poor.

FIGURE I

## THE SKID ROW CONCENTRATION CAMP SYSTEM

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The poverty sub-culture, in conclusion, is a dynamic social system incorporating its own values and realities. For the poor, who are forced to live within this system, the emerging realities dictate a particular way of life. When we speak of apathy, indifference, and defeatism among the poor, it is almost invariably without a thorough appreciation of the many powerful social forces reinforcing poverty, or the excruciating mental anguish intrinsic to the poverty situation. A rather appropriate description of poverty and the circumstance of the poor is "Lower-class life is crisis-life, constantly trying to 'make do' with string where rope is needed".<sup>61</sup>

#### SUMMARY AND PERSPECTIVE

This paper has attempted to perform an analysis of poverty within the context of Canadian society. An effort was made to delineate the general prevalence and scope of poverty, to emphasize its specific incidence among certain groups, to describe some of its causes, and illustrate certain of the factors which reinforce and sustain poverty amidst relative affluence. An attempt was also made to examine the "poverty situation" to illuminate the way in which the attitude and behavior patterns, the value constructs, the family compositions, and the general life style of the poor -- are all a product of the condition of poverty. On the basis of this analysis, it appears that one can make several generalizations concerning the state of contemporary Canadian poverty:

- (1) Poverty in Canada is not a mere superficial blemish on an otherwise healthy social and economic order; but is, in effect, a manifestation of more baser deficiencies in the way we allocate resources, evaluate personal worth, and reward achievement.
- (2) Economic growth will not, in itself, eradicate poverty; for it does not ensure income to the retired or the disabled, eliminate discriminatory practices, or assure a productive role for the underskilled and the undereducated.
- (3) Poverty is not just a state of insufficient income. It is an entire way of life whose roots extend much deeper; involving a self-reinforcing pattern of restricted opportunities, deficient community resources, excessive social pressures, and numerous defensive adaptations. Increased income alone will not, in all likelihood, prove sufficient to break the bonds of poverty or guarantee the poor an opportunity to escape from the clutches of the poverty situation.
- (4) Poverty is not merely some debilitating occurrence that has happened. There are many individuals and groups of individuals who profit from the present condition of the poor. Correspondingly, there are many others whose profit or power would be seriously jeopardized should the poor become economically secure or active social and political participants



in society. This represents a major barrier to the eventual eradication of poverty - a barrier that should not be underestimated.

(5) There is no single, magic solution or painless formula for the elimination of poverty. This is not to say that there are no specific solutions to poverty, or that any single poverty program is as good as any other. Quite clearly, poverty today is of a heterogeneous character with the problems of the young visibly different from those of the aged or the economically obsolete. Thus, any solutions to the problem of poverty will have to be both specific and general.

Poverty can be eradicated, if we will to eradicate it. Since we already possess the wherewithal for eradicating poverty, the crucial question then becomes one of inducing the people in power to make the appropriate decisions that will place a high priority on the elimination of poverty.

Unfortunately, there are still innumerable areas where our knowledge of poverty is generally insufficient to allow a rational social policy to be effectuated and pursued. Indeed, in some cases there is not even enough factual data to realistically formulate detailed problems for investigation. Accordingly, much of the present paper is devoted to a comprehensive conceptualization of poverty, from which certain data requirements might be ascertainable.

It is somewhat ironic that at precisely the moment in history, when for the first time a nation has the technology and the material ability to put an end to poverty, its people lack the initiative to do so - even though it would be to the mutual advantage of all members of that society.

Few will deny that poverty reflects one of the grosser forms of economic waste. The economic costs imposed by poverty on the Canadian economy are astounding. In a recent supplement to the Economic Council of Canada's Sixth Annual Review an attempt was made to outline some of the economic costs of poverty and to estimate, under varying assumptions, a part of these costs - namely, the gross economic costs of lost output due to poverty (or, more accurately, the gross economic benefits achievable if such output could actually have been produced):

*. . . the total of lost income, or lost output, which could be directly attributed to poverty in 1961 is estimated to fall in a range of roughly \$1 billion to about \$2 1/2 billion, depending upon assumptions made. This estimate, it must be emphasize, does not take into account the resource cost which would be necessary to so organize our institutions and policies that the full unrealized earnings potential of the poor would be realized, nor, in consequence, does it permit calculation*



*to be made of the "economic returns" from doing so.*<sup>62</sup>

Similarly, Senator Croll has recently reported that the total cost of supplying social services to all levels of Government was somewhere between seven and one-half and eight billions of dollars.<sup>63</sup> But these are just a few of the economic costs of poverty in Canada. Obviously the total poverty burden is much greater, particularly when you consider the tremendous human and social costs resulting from poverty. But, then, just how do we set about to objectively quantify such costs?

The most startling feature of contemporary Canadian poverty, in summary, is that it is almost totally unnecessary. Stated quite simply, poverty exists - not because it is unavoidable - but because we have not tried to avoid it.

If this is true, perhaps what we then require is a new appreciation of those words attributed to St. Vincent de Paul:

*Before you go out and help the poor,  
You must first beg their pardon.*<sup>64</sup>





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CONCLUSIONS,  
RECOMMENDATIONS AND  
POLICY QUESTIONS

In recent years there has been increasing emphasis upon the utilization of concepts and methods from the social sciences for the creation of public policy.

In the 1967 White Paper on Human Resources Development the Government of Alberta endorsed the principle that social science can be used to help to diagnose social problems, to generate alternative courses of action, to plan social change, and to evaluate the results of new practices. According to the White Paper: "human resources will be treated as being intrinsically more important than physical resources" and "consideration will be given to individuals (persons) rather than to human beings collectively (society) . . ." Further,

*The Government of Alberta commits itself, as a matter of policy, to increased research effort in the field of human resources development. Such research is necessary to achieve a standard of excellence, and to facilitate the wise investment of public funds.*

*In particular, the Government will:*

*(a) Utilize the "systems approach" in studying social problems and formulating human resources development policies. This approach will ensure the study of social problems and the analysis of government policies in their relation to the total socio-economic system, rather than on a limited departmentalized basis.*

The concern with the measurement of social phenomena in this review is, in large part, a reflection of these more general concerns.

At the same time, this Review reflects a particular point of view about ways in which to inject social scientific methods and concepts into policy making. This point of view is best expressed by the phrase "social reporting".

The purpose of social reporting is to develop an intelligence system which will not only satisfy our curiosity about society but also lead to those basic understandings of the present operation of the social system which will provide a solid base for planning the future. If a social report is to achieve this latter purpose it must make possible more informed judgments about social priorities and conditions and better evaluation of ongoing programs.

But, as we have written repeatedly, this Review is not a social report. Instead, this Review represents an attempt to take a first step toward the distant ideal of a social report. The main thrusts of our efforts involved:

(1) the development of a model of the total social system which brings together in one place maps of the goals of society, the social services, and the needs and concerns of individuals.



(2) the cataloguing of available social data using the model as our main frame of reference.

(3) the illustration of what can be done with presently available data.

In this, the final section of the Review, we attempt to carry this one step further by pointing to what might be done or what needs to be done in future steps toward improved social reporting for Alberta. This section has three main parts. The first deals with some of the lessons we have learned about social reporting from this Review. The second contains some specific recommendations about the future of social reporting in Alberta. The last part illustrates the kinds of questions about social policy which emerge from a social report; this last part is built up around some of the recurring emphases in the previous sections of the Review.

#### WHAT WE HAVE LEARNED: THE HUMAN RESOURCES REVIEW IN RETROSPECT

In general, the logic of social reporting is convincing and its purposes can be readily endorsed by most persons. But there are as yet no examples anywhere of a social report. The reason for this is straightforward -- there are a great many problems to be understood and resolved before the larger objectives of social reporting can be realized. The preparation of this Review has helped us to bring many of these problems into clearer focus.

#### Social Goals and Social Reporting

The process of developing a model on which to base the Review involved, among other things, the process of goal setting. Some goal areas were included; others were left out. Some goals were treated as major areas of interest; others were dealt with as subgoals.

At the time we were, of course, aware of the dangers in this. Social goals are very sensitive issues and the subject of great debate. Thus our concern was to remain as neutral as possible in making value judgements about the primacy of various goals and to make sure that our selection of goals covered the possibilities adequately.

Whether or not our approach reflected the proper or best organization of the goal areas remains to be seen. This is an issue which must be carefully watched in any subsequent steps within this province toward a social report.

#### Social Change and Out-of-Date Concepts

At all times, man is limited by his current understandings of social events and of the relationships among social variables. At first glance, this statement seems to be a truism far too obvious to mention.





But when this statement is thought of in relation to a social report it becomes more significant. In places earlier in the Review we have noted that:

- (1) social goals change, as in the case of the penal system where emphasis on the treatment of prisoners is moving away from punishment and toward rehabilitation.
- (2) the balance between public and private social services shifts over time, as seen in the increasing involvement of the public sector in recreational services.
- (3) as certain needs and concerns of individuals are satisfied, their place can be taken by other needs and concerns.
- (4) much of the available data is too faithful to the concepts of the past, more concerned with simple body- and dollar-counts than with the effectiveness of services or with the multidimensional nature of problems.

Any system for social reporting must be structured in such a way that, even if it might not anticipate similar changes in the future, it might be flexible enough to adjust to them when they occur.

he Social  
tatistics Gap

In the preceding sections of this Review two sentences appear repeatedly: "Available data is far from adequate" and "There is virtually no data available which is relevant to this topic". This problem is the result of many factors, not the least of which is the fact that many of the areas we have dealt with are often regarded as private or personal matters and hence are not recorded statistically. But this is a philosophical issue which cannot be resolved here. Our concern is with three other factors.

The first is the unsystematic nature of current data systems whether private or public, municipal, provincial or national. In the short space we have here we can only identify a few of the problems with available and a few of the issues which must be resolved if information management is to be improved. Chief among the problems are:

- (a) much of the data available is limited to one or at best a small number of uses.
- (b) historical data is difficult to obtain in "raw" or unanalyzed form and so cannot be used for new analysis.
- (c) there is a great variety of seldom comparable reporting units -- census divisions, counties, hospital districts, and so on.



(d) much of the data is very prone to error and is therefore of questionable usefulness.

However, these rather technical problems and others like them may prove to be easier to resolve than certain other more normative issues surrounding the use of social indicators. These normative issues can be expressed best in terms of the following questions. Who should devise the model for a social report? Who should collect the data and how? How will conflicts in data and their interpretation be resolved?

The second is the need for strategic information. While there is a tendency to make much of the "information explosion", it should not be assumed that policy makers, social scientists and others have too much information at their disposal. To the contrary, we have found that there is little information available concerning certain crucial social processes and that much of the information available is not relevant for policy making purposes.

A final problem is that social data are collected by formal instead of real social units. Census divisions, for example, are the commonly used regional demarcations in Alberta; as we saw in the section on the environment, these can in no way be considered as functional, economic, physical or social regions.

## he Problem of Valid ocial Measurement

Perhaps the most basic dilemma in social research is that in the search for accuracy and precision in measurement there often emerges a disparity between theoretical concept and the operational definition by which it is measured. This is an ever present problem which seems almost inherent in social science: no single operational measure nor any small set of them can adequately convey all of the aspects of the rather large concepts with which the social sciences must deal.

By this point, our readers are surely aware that this problem is of particular significance in social reporting. After all, how can one measure religious experience? Or physical and mental well-being?

In addition to the problem of measurement by reduction, there are two other problems of valid social measurement. Both have been mentioned above. The first has to do with taking measurements on formal rather than real social units. The second relates to the problems encountered when attempting to measure a concept with data originally collected for other purposes such as government housekeeping.

Clearly, there are no easy solutions to these problems which face anyone who would prepare a social report. Indeed, the search for a completely satisfactory solution may well be fruitless since all measures of social concepts have a built-in problem of internal validity.



If such problems confront the social reporter, what then of the users of a social report? What problems will he confront if policy is formulated on the basis of findings drawn from weak measurements or from measurements which leave important aspects of social concepts untouched?

But the basic thrust of this discussion need not be so negative. To say that a tool, like social science, has limitations is not to say that the tool is worthless. The social reporter should be alert to these limitations and conduct his work in such a way that it is as good as it can be under the circumstances and that it might constantly improve.

#### SOME SPECIFIC RECOMMENDATIONS ABOUT SOCIAL REPORTING IN ALBERTA

Every encouragement should be given to the development of a system for social reporting. Subject to the kinds of qualifications noted above, it would seem that such a development is both desirable and feasible.

#### The Nature of Social Indicators

(1) The preparation of a social report is a major undertaking, too great to do all at once. Thus, we must ask, "Where to begin?" It would seem appropriate for a variety of reasons to begin with those areas which make major claims on available public and private resources -- education, health and welfare for instance.

(2) Indicators of social progress or retrogression as well as measures of resource input are required. Thus, for example, any treatment of "Legal Justice" should include statistics on crime rates as well as simple measures of expenditures on crime detection and prevention, the number and qualifications of police, and so on.

(3) Both sub-indicators and global indicators are needed, with each sub-indicator covering one aspect of the larger concept.

(4) Statistics related to indicator areas should come from a variety of sources.

(5) It must not be assumed that there is one right or best way to prepare a social report or structure a system of social indicators.

(6) To the extent possible, indicator data should be presented for a variety of geographic areas -- municipalities, counties, regions, Census divisions, and the province as a whole.

(7) To the extent possible the indicator data should be comparative -- to another time as well as to another place.





## Possible Next Steps

(1) A working group, broadly representative of all segments of Alberta society, of data suppliers, analysts and users, should be established at an early date to direct all subsequent work on social reporting in this province.

(2) Because social and individual goals are such sensitive areas, the goal areas which will form the basis of subsequent social reports should be determined publicly, perhaps through discussion and debate in open hearings.

(3) Subsequent social reports should be more narrowly focused, that is, examine a smaller number of social goals and individual concerns but in greater depth. The resulting lack of comprehensiveness might be offset by preparing a companion volume of Social Trends which could present summary social statistics in all areas but largely without comment.

(4) In order to expedite the efforts of the working group the province requires, in addition to resources already available, the following:

- (a) an agency capable of conducting sound survey research;
- (b) a central statistical agency which could serve a variety of users, including private citizens, social scientists, agencies and departments of government, and so on. Such an agency should be responsible for current files as well as the maintenance of adequate data archives. In the event that the creation of a central statistical agency might be regarded as premature at this time, the development and maintenance of a central registry of statistical files available from all sources in the province may be an acceptable alternative.

(5) Finally, it should be remembered that the Decennial Census of Canada is being taken in 1971. This data will provide great opportunities for improved social reportin in the near future.

SOCIAL REPORTING AND  
THE CREATION OF SOCIAL  
POLICY: AN ILLUSTRATION  
OF THE POSSIBILITIES

In several of the preceding sections of the Review we have argued that a social report can be a powerful tool to assist policy making in the diagnosis of social problems, the charting of alternative courses of action and the planning and evaluation of new practices. Here we attempt to illustrate how this might be done by identifying some of the recurring themes in the previous sections of this Review and by raising some general questions of social policy related to these themes.





## Some Recurring Themes

In our discussion of the various social services in Alberta we have seen that, in general:

1. With population growth, increasing awareness of the availability of public services, and several other factors, the demand for public services has increased steadily. Increased demand has led to the expansion of existing programs and the addition of new services.
2. There is a growing reliance on the public sector for the provision of social services and for the regulation of services offered in the private sector.
3. A rather large number of public agencies in Alberta are passive rather than active. Passive agencies can take action only after individuals have requested their services; in addition, these services tend to be less well publicized and as a result the public is often unaware of their existence.
4. There are often disparities between the expressed or official goals of the social services and their actual activities.
5. Access to social services in Alberta is not always equal. In addition to race, sex, income and geographic differences, there are substantial differences among Albertans in their awareness of the existence of services and of the way in which service agencies function.
6. In some areas in particular, there appears to be a need for greater planning and coordination of services. This seems to be the case within as well as between the public and private sectors.
7. There are many gaps in our knowledge and understanding of the operation of the social service in Alberta.

What questions do these summary propositions raise concerning the operation of the social services? What issues will policy makers have to resolve now and in the future?

## Demand for Services

What is the demand for the various social services likely to be next year? Five years from now? Ten years? Fifteen or more years?

Will the demand outrun the supply of services? When? What will be the consequences?

Who will make these demands? Everyone? The middle classes? The aged? The poor? Will they add muscle to their demands?

To what extent will the various services be active or passive? How does a shift from passive to active influence demand?



Who will meet the demand? Governments? Private agencies?  
Voluntary or religious associations? Commercial interests?

What will become the essential, top-priority services?

Public and Private  
Sectors

Will the shift to the public sector continue? Is it desirable?  
Can it be forestalled?

How many services can the public sector provide?

Are centralization and bureaucratization inevitable consequences  
of the shift to the public sector?

Are public services more costly than private services?

Passive Social  
Services

Is it desirable that any publicly supported service be passive  
and hence available only to those persons who know of it? Is  
passiveness merely a way of keeping demand for the service  
at the lowest level possible?

Should passive agencies do more to publicize their existence  
and the nature of the services they offer? What will be the  
likely consequences?

Disparities Between  
Official Goals and  
Actual Services

Is it possible to eliminate such disparities altogether? Why?  
How?

Indeed, why do such disparities exist? Have the services grown  
too large, too remote from people, too bound by "red tape"?  
Are services slow to adapt to changing needs of people and  
to changing social goals?

Quality of  
Opportunity

What does equality of opportunity mean? In theory? In practice?

Is it within society's means to eliminate all obstacles to  
equal access to recreational services?

How? For whom? When?

Planning and  
Coordination

Will greater attention to planning and coordination of efforts  
become necessary? Why? Is it desirable?

Who will plan? A superagency? Politicians? Civil servants?

Will different services require different approaches to planning  
and coordination? How should society plan for the arts?  
Education? Legal services?





What will be the balance between public and private services?  
Will the two sectors come into conflict?

How will the services be affected by planning? Will their  
goals change? Will their method of operating change?

How might plans be implemented? Through financial incentives?  
Centralized control? Voluntary coordination?

Will planning be experimental?

#### The Knowledge Gap

What does the knowledge gap suggest about the operation of  
the social services? That they have operated in trial and  
error fashion? That they have been incremental? That the  
only guiding principle has been the "art of politics" or  
ideology?

How might the gap be closed or bridged? How might the results  
of science be fed into the political arena? Should scientists  
become politicians or politicians scientists?

Can the logic of science be considered superior to the logic  
of politics?

#### CONCLUDING NOTE

In this last section of the Review we have tried to move beyond  
a simple statistical description of social services in Alberta  
to outline the problems and prospects of social reporting and  
to an indication of the kinds of policy questions which might  
grow out of a social report.

The problems we identified are real and will not be resolved  
quickly, if ever.

But the prospects are good, if we are alert to the limitations  
of social science and if we constantly strive to improve the  
art that is social science.

While our approach to policy matters was rhetorical, even the  
incomplete data of the earlier sections of the Review could  
be used to provide suggestive insights into answers to them.









